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THE  
BOOK OF THE WORLD.

BEING AN ACCOUNT OF ALL  
REPUBLICS, EMPIRES, KINGDOMS, AND NATIONS,  
IN REFERENCE TO THEIR  
GEOGRAPHY, STATISTICS, COMMERCE, &c.  
TOGETHER WITH A  
Brief Historical Outline  
OF THEIR  
RISE, PROGRESS AND PRESENT CONDITION,  
&c., &c., &c.

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BY RICHARD S. FISHER, M. D.

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IN TWO VOLUMES.

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VOL. II.

ILLUSTRATED WITH MAPS AND CHARTS

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1852.



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## GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF

## EUROPE.

EUROPE, with the exception of Australia, is the least of the great continents into which the earth is naturally divided : but in the intelligence, enterprise and civilization of its people, and perhaps also in physical advantages, it is eminently superior to all other portions of the world. "*Altrice victoris omnium gentium populi, longeque terrarum pulcherrima.*"—(Plinii Hist. Nat., lib. iii. § 1.) Here man in his mental, moral and physical capacities is most developed. Enlightened and strengthened by successive ages of struggle, mind and matter have here attained their utmost tension. In no other part of the world has such progress been made in all that is useful, ornamental and great. The arts, sciences and literature are indigenous. Italy and Greece, the ancient seats of learning and song, whose grandeur astonishes the mind ; Britain, the mother of nations, on whose wide dominions the sun never ceases to shine ; Germany, whose sons overturned even Rome herself, and whose eventful history so captivates the soul ; and France, beautiful France, are of Europe but component parts. All is classic ground. Alexander, Charlemagne, Napoleon, were denizens of this favored land. Here Homer sang ; here Milton lived. Shakspeare, Schiller, and a thousand other potent names, are linked in eternity to its destiny. To the world, indeed, Europe is as an elder brother, to which all nations look for encouragement and support. Its history sheds a halo of light over civilization, and its ancient liberties ever live in the hearts of true freemen. All modern institutions have their prototype in the laws and equities of Europe, and governments find their chief support in the wisdom of her sages. Intelligence and industry framed her prosperity, and the same agents maintain her præminence.

Europe, geographically speaking, is situated between the longitudes of 9° west, and 66° east, and between the latitudes of 34° and 71° north. It is bounded *north* by the Arctic Ocean ; *east* by the River Kara Baidgarama, the main chain of the Urals, the River Ural, the coast of the Caspian Sea, the Strait of Ienikale, the Sea of Marmora, the Dardanelles, and the Archipelago ; *south* by the principal chain of the Caucasus, the Black Sea, the Mediterranean Sea, the Straits of Gibraltar, and the Atlantic Ocean ; and *west* by the Atlantic Ocean and Arctic Sea. The greatest length of Europe, from Cape St. Vincent in Portugal, to a point in the chain of the Urals, in the neighborhood of Iekaterinbourg, (in the Government of Perm, in Russia,) is 3,372 English miles. The greatest breadth, from Cape Nord-kin, in Finmark, to Cape Matapan, in Morea, is 2,400 miles. The area is 3,634,841 square miles.

The narrowest part of the European continent, washed by opposite seas,  
Vol. II.



is situated between the Gulf of Kandalaskaia, a branch of the White Sea, on the east, and the Gulf of Bothnia, near Kemi, on the west. There is also a remarkable contraction between the Bay of Biscay and the Gulf of Lyons. The width of the former of these contractions is 200 miles, and of the latter 230 miles.

The continent of Europe is distinguished from all others by the great irregularities of its shape and surface, and by the great number of its inland seas, gulfs, harbors, peninsulas, promontories and headlands. This circumstance tends not only to influence very materially the climate and natural products of this continent, but to promote navigation and commerce, on which, in a great measure, its prosperity depends.

The great indentations of the coast of Europe, especially those of the north-west and south sides, being its most important features, THE SEAS, on which these depend, will be first described. These are not, however, so extensive as is generally supposed. That portion of the Atlantic situate between Norway, to the south of Cape Stadt, Germany, France, Great Britain, and the Shetland Isles, is called the North Sea or German Ocean. It exhibits many remarkable topographical features. The encroachments of this sea on the coasts of Germany and the Low Countries have produced two gulfs, called the Dollart and Zuyder-Zee. An arm of the North Sea, between Jutland and Norway, is called the Skager-Rack, and by some geographers, the Sea of Denmark. One portion of it penetrates a deep inlet on the coast of Norway, and forms the Gulf of Christiana; and another arm between the south of Sweden and the northern portions of Jutland, takes the name of Kattegat. Two arms of no great size fill the inlets of Bauke and Bergen, on the south-western coast of Norway.

The Atlantic, as it stretches along the coast of Norway to the north of Cape Stadt, is called the Scandinavian Sea; to the west of the Strait of Dover, it is called the English Channel, between England and France; between Scotland and England, on one side, and Ireland on the other, it is named the Irish Sea, the southern outlet of which is St. George's or the Irish Channel, and the northern, the North Channel; it is called the Caledonia Sea to the north-west of Scotland; the Gulf of Gascony along the north-west coast of France; and the Bay of Biscay along a portion of the northern coast of Spain.

Two branches of the Atlantic, penetrating far inland, form the Mediterranean and the Baltic seas: the one situated in the north and the other in the south of Europe.

The Baltic, on the north, is a great inland sea, between Denmark, Mecklenburg, Pomerania, Prussia, and the Baltic provinces of Russia and Sweden. Its most remarkable branches are the Gulf of Bothnia, between Russian Finland and Sweden; the Gulf of Finland, south of Finland, and between that and the governments of St. Petersburg and Revel; the Gulf of Livonia or Riga, further south; and the Gulf of Dantzic, in Eastern Prussia. The passage or Channel of the Sound, and those of the Great and Little Belts, are the three openings by which the Baltic communicates with the Kattegat, which has already been noticed as a branch of the North Sea.

The Mediterranean Sea lies between Europe, Africa and Asia, to all which it is common. It communicates with the Atlantic by a narrow gut called the Strait of Gibraltar. This sea, in different localities, has received various specific names. On the European side, and between that continent

and the Belearic Isles, it is called the Belearic Channel; on the south of France, it has received the name of the Gulf of Lyons; on the south of Sardinia, the Gulf of Genoa; between Italy and the islands of Sardinia and Corsica, the Gulf of Tuscany; the Sea of Sicily, between the island of that name and the coast of Naples, and the Ionian Sea, between Southern Italy and Greece. The Adriatic Sea is a large arm penetrating between Northern Italy and Dalmatia: it is known by various local names in its several parts, as the Gulf of Venice, the Gulf of Trieste, &c. The Ægean Sea or Archipelago, between Greece and Asia, forms another great gulf, and has a number of inlets between the islands on its southern border. The singular indentations of the coasts of Greece and European Turkey form a great number of secondary gulfs, the most remarkable of which are those of Nauplia and Ægina or Athens, in the Kingdom of Greece; of Saloniki and Contessa, in ancient Macedonia, and Saros, in ancient Thrace.

Beyond the Strait of the Dardanelles, is the Sea of Marmora, and then by the Bosphorus, the Mediterranean communicates with the Black Sea, a lake of vast size, included between the southern coast of Russia, the eastern coast of European Turkey, and the northern coast of Asia Minor. This sea also presents several gulfs, of which the Sea of Azof, and the gulfs of Perceop and Odessa are the most remarkable—all of which belong to the coast of Southern Russia,

The Arctic Ocean, which, as already stated, washes only the northern extremity of Europe, exhibits several gulfs, of which the most considerable is that called Bieloé Moré, or White Sea. This extensive arm of the sea is nearly surrounded by that portion of the Russian territory which forms the government of Archangel. It has four principal gulfs, namely, those of Kandalaskaia, Onega, Archangel, the estuary of the Dvina, and Mezen. The other principal gulfs of the Arctic Ocean are West Fiorden, between the Lofoden Islands and the opposite coast of Finnmark; the Gulf of Tcheskaia, in the government of Archangel, and the Gulf of Karskaia or Kara, between Nova Zembla and the opposite coasts of Europe and Asia.

The Caspian Sea, between Europe and Asia, is a vast expanse of water, and forms, properly speaking, the most extensive lake in the known world. Its greatest extent of coast is in Asia. It receives the waters of the Ural and Volga, and numerous other streams from European Russia.

The superficial extent of the inland seas of Europe exceeds 1,800,000 square miles. The following table exhibits the estimate of each:

	<i>Square miles.</i>
Mediterranean Sea.....	367,000
Adriatic.....	62,400
Basin comprehended between Candia and the Dardanelles.....	73,400
Sea of Marmora.....	3,800
North Sea, or German Ocean.....	139,600
Black Sea.....	244,000
Caspian Sea.....	181,000
Baltic, with all its branches.....	141,900
White Sea.....	134,900
English Channel.....	33,000
St. George's Channel and Irish Sea.....	28,200
	25,900
Total of inland seas in Europe.....	1,800,500

Europe presents a coast line of nearly 15,000 miles in length.

The most remarkable STRAITS IN EUROPE are:—the Strait of Gibraltar, between Spain and Morocco, which forms a communication between the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea; the Straits of Messina; the

Dardanelles; the Bosphorus, or Strait of Constantinople; the Strait of Ienikale, uniting the Black Sea and the Sea of Azoph; the Strait of Dover, separating France from England, and uniting the English Channel and the North Sea; the Sound, between Sweden and the Island of Zealand; the Great Belt, between Zealand and the Island of Fyen; and the Little Belt, between Fyen and the opposite coast of Denmark. The three last form communications between the Kattegat and the Baltic. The Strait of Waygats, Vaigatch or Kara, lies between Nova Zembla and the Russian government of Archangel.

The PRINCIPAL CAPES are :—Cape Zelania, the northern extremity of the island group of Nova Zembla; North Cape, on the Island of Mageröe, in Finmark; the Nord-Kyn, also called Noss-Künn, in Finmark, remarkable as being the northern extremity of the European continent. All these capes project into the Arctic Ocean. On the shores of the Atlantic, and its branches, are found :—Cape Skagen, or the Skaw, in the north of Jutland; Cape La Hague, in France; Cape Wrath, in Scotland; the Land's-End, in Cornwall, England; Cape Clear, the south-westernmost point of Ireland; Cape Finisterre, in Spain; Cape Roca, in Portugal, and Cape St. Vincent's, also in Portugal. In the Mediterranean, and its branches, we find Cape Gata, Cape Palos, Cape St. Martin, and Cape Creux, all in Spain. Cape Corso, is the northern point of the Island of Corsica. In Sicily, are Capes Faro and Passaro. Capes d'Anzo, Campanella, Spartimento, Spartivento, Nau or Colonne, and Leuca, are all in Italy. Cape Matapan, in the Morea, is held by all geographers to be the extreme southern point of the European continent. There are also numerous capes and headlands in the Black Sea. In the Baltic we may mention Cape Domesnes, in the Gulf of Livonia, and Cape Hange-Udde, in the Gulf of Finland.

From the manner in which the European continent is penetrated by the ocean, its outline presents a number of PENINSULAS, to which there is no parallel in the world. The largest of these is the Scandinavian Peninsula, comprising Norway, Sweden, and Lapland. Next follow the three great peninsulas of Western Europe; the Spanish, which includes Spain, Portugal, and the Republic of Andorré; the Italian, so remarkable for its odd form, being shaped like a boot; and the Grecian, not less remarkable for the number of secondary peninsulas which its outline presents. The Morea, forming the southern portion of the latter, alike famous in ancient and modern history, and the Macedonian, the northern portion of the same, which is itself divided into three other peninsulas—those of Monte-Santo, Toron and Cassandra, are occupied chiefly by the modern kingdom of Greece. The other principal European peninsulas are the Crimea, in Southern Russia; Kanin, in the government of Archangel; Jutland, in the north of Germany; and a peninsula which comprehends the provinces of Holland and Utrecht, which may be termed the Netherlandish. We may also remark that the three departments of Finisterre, Morbihan, and Côtés du Nôrd, form a peninsula in the north-west of France. Many other peninsulas might be pointed out; but it would be idle to proceed with the enumeration of these, as they can be easily ascertained by consulting the map of Europe.

The RIVERS OF EUROPE may be considered under six heads, corresponding with the different seas into which they disembogue. We must here limit our remarks to those of the larger class; the others will be better described with the countries through which they traverse.

The Caspian, as before remarked, receives the Ural, which divides Europe from Asia; the Volga, which traverses the greater portion of European Russia; the Kouma and the Terek. All these rivers are in Russia.

The Mediterranean, including its branches, receives the Don, which falls into the Sea of Azoph; the Dnieper, Dniester, and Danube, which enter the Black Sea. The last named, inferior only to the Volga in extent, traverses the whole of Southern Germany, Hungary, and European Turkey. The Maritza and the Vardar fall into the Archipelago. The Po and the Adige flow into the Adriatic. The Tiber, in Italy; the Rhone, in France, and the Ebro, in Spain, all flow into the western branches of the Mediterranean.

The Atlantic Ocean receives the Guadalquivir, the Guadiana, the Tagus and the Douro, from Spain and Portugal; the Garonne, Loire and Seine, from France; the Scheldt, the Meuse, and the Rhine, the Weser and the Elbe, after passing through France, Belgium, the Netherlands and Germany, fall into the North Sea; the Glommen, the largest river of Norway, and the Göta, or Gothehelbe, from Sweden, the first of which falls into the Skager-Rack, and the latter into the Kattegat; and the Thames and Humber, in England, which fall into the North Sea.

The Baltic, and its branches, receive the Dala, Indals or Ragunda, Angermann, Umea and Lulea, from the Norwegiano-Swedish monarchy, and the Tornea, from the latter country and the Russian territory; the Neva, the Duna and the Niemen, from Russia; the Vistula, the course of which is through Poland and Prussia; and the Oder, which, rising in the Carpathian Mountains, traverses the whole centre of the latter.

The Arctic Ocean receives the Tana, from Finmark in Sweden; the Petchora, from the Russian Government of Archangel; and the Kara Baigarama, which in part separates Europe from Asia.

The White Sea receives the Onega, the Dwina and the Mezen, which flow through a large portion of Northern Russia.

It has been estimated by Malte-Brun that, representing all the waters discharged by the rivers of Europe by unity, the Black Sea receives 0.273; the Caspian, 0.165; the Mediterranean, Sea of Marmora, and the Archipelago, 0.144; the Atlantic Ocean, 0.131; the Baltic, 0.129; the North Sea, 0.110; and the Arctic Ocean, 0.048.

The following table will exhibit the proportional lengths, basins, and annual discharge of waters of the principal rivers of Europe, the Thames being the unity:

RIVERS.	Length.	BASIN.		Water Discharged.
		Area in Sq. M.	Size.	
The Thames.....	1.....	5,500.....	1.....	1.....
Rhine.....	4½.....	70,000.....	12½.....	13.....
Loire.....	4.....	48,000.....	8½.....	10.....
Po.....	2½.....	27,000.....	5.....	6.....
Elbe.....	4½.....	50,000.....	9.....	8.....
Vistula.....	4½.....	76,000.....	13½.....	12.....
Danube.....	9½.....	310,000.....	56.....	65.....
Dnieper.....	7½.....	200,000.....	36.....	36.....
Don.....	7½.....	205,000.....	37.....	38.....
Volga.....	14.....	520,000.....	94.....	80.....

Compared with the rivers of Asia and America, these would be but small tributaries; but they are, nevertheless, capacious enough for all commercial purposes. The continent of Europe, indeed, is so intersected by gulfs and bays as to require but little more convenience, and where nature has not provided sufficient means of communication between parts

art has successfully extended it by means of canals, railroads, &c., with which the whole has been brought into near proximity.

The LAKES OF EUROPE, of which the Caspian sea ought to be considered as one, can bear no comparison to the great lakes of America; but they afford convenience to localities, and present to the eye more of the picturesque and beautiful than any natural scenery in the world. Among the principal lakes, properly so called, are the following :

	<i>Square miles.</i>		<i>Square miles.</i>
Ladoga ( <i>Russia</i> ).....	6,330	Constance, ( <i>Switzerland</i> ).....	290
Onega, ( <i>idem</i> ).....	3,280	Illmen, ( <i>Russia</i> ).....	275
Wener ( <i>Sweden</i> ).....	2,136	Lexa, ( <i>idem</i> ).....	229
Saimas, ( <i>Russian Finland</i> ).....	1,602	Ulea, ( <i>Russian Finland</i> ).....	229
Peïpous, ( <i>Russia</i> ).....	839	Garda, ( <i>Italy</i> ).....	183
Wetter, ( <i>Sweden</i> ).....	839	Maggiore, ( <i>idem</i> ).....	152
Mælar, ( <i>idem</i> ).....	763	Tavesthus or Nesi, ( <i>Finland</i> ).....	152
Enara, ( <i>Russian Lapland</i> ).....	656	Balaton, ( <i>Hungary</i> ).....	152
Kuopio ( <i>Russian Finland</i> ).....	610	Neuchatel, ( <i>Switzerland</i> ).....	114
Bielo-Osero, ( <i>Russia</i> ).....	534	Lake of the Four Cantons, ( <i>idem</i> )....	99
Geneva, ( <i>Switzerland</i> ).....	336	Zurich, ( <i>idem</i> ).....	76

Lagunes are numerous along the south coast of the Baltic, and some parts of the Adriatic shores; and Holland is full of dykes and pools. The coasts of Norway and parts of Sweden abound with inlets of the sea, which often stretch a long distance inland; these, however, do not consist of stagnant waters. Swamps occupy nearly the whole basin of the Priépec, in Poland, and along the courses of the Danube and Theiss, in Hungary, and at the mouths of the Danube, Po, and other rivers, they are extensive. Many of minor extent are to be found in the great plain of the continent; in the eastern parts of England; in Touraine, in France; in Italy, (in particular the Pontine Marshes;) in Sicily, in Western Greece, and on the shores of the Black Sea. (*Malte-Brun. Balbi, &c.*)

The ISLANDS OF EUROPE are both extensive and important, but as they will be more minutely described in the special descriptions of the states to which they belong, we can in this place confine our remarks to generalities. All European islands may be classified under four leading divisions corresponding with the number of the different seas in which they are found.

1. *The Islands and Archipelagoes in the Atlantic Ocean.*—The first in extent and importance is the British Archipelago, among which are Great Britain and Ireland, the two largest in Europe. Next follow Vigeroë, Hitteren, &c., on the coast of Norway; the Ferøe Islands, belonging to Denmark; the Dutch Archipelago, consisting of several islands off the coast of Holland; the Islands of Jersey, Guernsey and Alderney, situated on the French coast, although politically they are connected with Great Britain; the Azores, belonging to Portugal, and numerous others of less importance.

2. *The Islands and Archipelagoes in the Mediterranean and its branches.*—These are the Belearic Islands, of which Majorca is the largest; the large islands of Corsica, Sardinia and Sicily, the little island of Elba, and the diminutive group of Malta; the Ionian Isles; Candia, a large island; the Grecian Archipelago, in which are many important islands; and finally, on the coast of Dalmatia and in the Adriatic Sea, the Islands of Lissa, Brazza, Veglia, Cherso, and others of lesser extent.

3. *The Islands and Archipelagoes of the Baltic.*—This division presents the islands of Zealand, Fven or Funen, Falster, and some others; then fol-

low Bornholm, a dependency of Denmark; Oland and Gottland, belonging to Sweden; the Aland isles, and the islands of Dago and Cesel, all of which belong to Russia.

And 4. *The Islands and Archipelagoes of the Arctic Ocean and its branches.*—This class commences on the west with the Lofodon-Magerøe group, in the Norwegian Archipelago, some of the islands of which are large and important. To the east of these are Kalgouve Island, near the entrance of the White Sea; Nova-Zembla; and the Islands of Waygats. Returning eastward on a higher parallel, we find the Cherry or Barren Island to the north of Finmark, and further north, the Archipelago of Spitzbergen, which, however, is generally ranked as belonging to America. Russia claims Spitzbergen as a dependency, but its shores on this account are not the less frequented by English, Danish, and other ships that are attracted there by the abundance of whales, white bears, narwhales, and other large mammiferous animals. This archipelago consists of three large and numerous smaller islands. The Danes have occupied some of these as hunting stations.

The MOUNTAIN SYSTEMS OF EUROPE are better known, and have received more the attention of scientific men than any others; but in a work of this description it will be utterly impossible to do more than give a general view of their courses and heights. These are divided into thirteen classes, of which nine are continental and four insular. Two of the continental divisions, namely, the Uralian and Caucasian, belong in common to Europe and Asia; but as their ramifications are mostly connected with the latter, they will be described under the head of that continent. The other seven are wholly within the limits of Europe, and are the Hesperian, Gallo-Franconian, Alpine, Slavo-Hellenic, Slavonic, Hercynio-Carpathian and Scandianavian. The four insular divisions are the Sardo-Corsican, in the Mediterranean; the Britannic and Açorian, in the Atlantic Ocean, and the Boreal, in the Arctic Ocean.

The first group consists of the mountains of Spain and Portugal. These are subdivided into the southern, central and northern chains, the latter of which includes the Pyrennees. Few are formed into continuous ranges, and in general they are imperfectly connected. The highest points are the Pichaco de Mulhacen, 11,657 feet, and its neighbor the Pichaco de Velata, 11,389; the Sierra de Gredos, 10,551, and the Penalara, a little to the north of the Escorial, 8,223. In the Pyrennees also the elevations range from 6,000 to 11,000 feet above the level of the Ocean; the Pic de Netou, the eastern summit of Maladetta, or Mount Maudit, is 11,426 feet; Pic Posets, 11,279 feet, and Mount Perdu, on the Spanish frontier, 11,170 feet.

The Gallo-Franconian Mountains include those of France west of the Rhine. In this system there is no appearance of a continuous chain, but it rather consists of a series of small plateaus surmounted by mountains, or more frequently by mere hilly eminences. It includes the Cevennes, the Vosges, and the Armorican chains. The highest points are Plombe de Cantal, 6,093 feet, and Puy-Mary, a volcanic peak, 6,113 feet above the sea. Many other peaks rise to the height of 4 or 5,000 feet, but the greater number scarcely attain the elevation of 1,000 feet.

The Alpine system comprehends the mountains east of the Rhone, and Doubs, to the right of the Danube, and to the west of the Unna, a tributary of the Save. The Alps compose the great central table-land of Europe,

over a sixth part of which their ramifications are estimated to extend. The summits of the Alpine system yield in elevation only to those of the Caucasus. Mont Blanc, the highest mountain in continental Europe, is 15,732 feet in height. Several other peaks attain the height of 12 to 13,000 feet. The Alps spread into several principal branches which extend over Switzerland, France, Germany, the Austrian Empire, Turkey, Greece and Italy; and other systems are intimately connected with them.

The Sclavo-Hellenic, or Eastern Alps, may be considered as a continuation of the former. Their course is east and west through Turkey, and north and south through parts of Turkey and Greece. The mountains of Candia, those in the islands of the Archipelago, and also the mountains of the Ionian islands, are dependencies of this system. The general elevation is inferior to that of the Alps proper, and the highest points only attain a comparatively low elevation. The Tchar-Dag, 10,000 feet, is the highest of the Balkan range, and in the Hellenic range the culminating point of the Mezzovo ridge is 9,000 feet. Mount Lacha, (*ancient Olympus*) according to Captain Copeland, R. N., is 9,754 feet high; Mount Kissok, (*Ossa*) 6,407, and Mount Zagora, (*Pelion*) 5,310 feet.

The Hercynio-Carpathian system includes all the mountains and eminences comprehended between the Rhine, Dneiper, and Danube, the plains of northern Germany and those of western Poland. Their general course is east and west, but they have numerous divergencies and offsets which traverse large extents of country. The western summits are the most elevated, but none attain even the height of 9,000, and few more than 5,000 feet above the ocean. The highest point is Eisthaler-Spitze, 8,524 feet.

The Slavonic system is scarcely worthy the name of mountains, being but slight undulations on the vast plateau of Russia, and presents no ranges as in other portions of Europe. The most remarkable heights are the town of Novgorod, which is 453 feet; the table land or plateau between Ostaschkow and Valdai, 1,119 feet; the town of Ostaschkow, 856 feet, and the city of Moscow, 928 feet above the level of the ocean.

The Scandinavian system embraces all the mountains of Norway, Sweden, and Lapland, together with the heights which diversify the surface of Finland, and the governments of Olonetz and Archangel. The principal chain commences at Cape Lindesnæs, the southern extremity of Norway; it expands over Norway, the main ridge in the northern portion of its course marking the line of distinction between that country and Sweden; it then traverses Finmark and terminates at Cape Nord-Kyn, the most northerly point of Continental Europe. It is only the central portion in which the features of a true chain can be recognized; the other parts are tablelands surmounted by isolated ranges and groups. Some small detached ranges traverse the country from east to west. The groups of the Lofoden and Tromsen islands, so famous for their fisheries, and which form the Norwegian archipelago, may be considered a depending chain of this system. The highest point is Skagstol Tind, 8,395 feet above the sea.

The Sardo-Corsican system, as the name implies, is confined to the islands of Corsica and Sardinia. The highest summit appears to be Monte Rotondo, 9,069 feet above the sea. The principal chain extends from the narrow and hilly peninsula named Cape Corso, in the north of Corsica, to Cape Teulada, and Cape Carbonara, in the south of Sardinia, the strait of Bonifacio being merely a break or rent in its ridge.

The Britannic system includes all the mountains within the region of Great Britain and Ireland, including the Orkney, Hebrides, and Faroë

islands. These being included in one kingdom, will be better described under that separate head. Ben Macdui, in the Grampian chain, is the highest point, being about 4,390, and Ben Nevis, in the northern Highlands, the second in height, 4,373 feet above the level.

The Açorian or western system includes all the mountains in the islands which form the group of the Açores, or Azores. The culminating points of this system are the Grand Pico in the island of Pico, the altitude of which is 8,057 feet, and the Pico de Vara, in the island of St. Miguel, which reaches to the elevation of 5,326 feet above the sea.

The Boreal system is intended to include the mountains of Spitzbergen. The principal culminating points and their respective heights are—Black Point, 4,495 feet, and Mount Parnassus, 3,951 feet, both on the main island called Spitzbergen, or New Friesland, and the Honberg, 4,399 feet, on Charles Island.

Some of the plateaux or elevated lands of Europe have been already alluded to. The most considerable in point of extent, is the table-land of Central Russia; but its height is not great, since, even in the neighborhood of the sources of the Volga, it does not attain a greater height than from 1,100 to 1,150 feet. Then follow the table-lands of central Spain, about 2,200 feet in height; the table-land of Switzerland, between the Alps and Jura mountains, 2,240 feet; that of Auvergne, 2,300 feet; of Piedmont, from 640 to 1,900 feet; of Jura, from 1,700 to 1,900 feet; of Bavaria, 1,660 feet; and that of Thuringia, from 640 to 770 feet above the level of the ocean.

There is only one active volcano in all continental Europe, namely, Mount Vesuvius, or *Monte Vesuvio*, near Naples; but as a considerable warmth is still felt in the bottom of the crater of Monte Nuovo, in the Bay of Baia, to the west of Naples, a mountain which was thrown up by an eruption in 1530, the latter may still be considered as a recent volcano. The islands of Europe contain several, the principal of which are—Ætna, or Mongibello, in Sicily; and Stromboli, Vulcano, and Vulcanello, in the group of the Lepari Islands. Stromboli is the least elevated of all the known volcanoes, and is singularly interesting from the permanence of its phenomena. The little island Ferdinandine, which was thrown up by an eruption near the coast of Sicily, in 1833, had only a short existence of a few months duration. Ischia, off the coast of Naples, has been in a quiescent state since the 14th century; but hot springs and sulphureous vapors still rise from many points of the surface of the island. Santorini, in the Grecian Archipelago, was in a state of eruption in the year 1707, and numerous small islands and rocks have been at different periods thrown up in the vicinity of the principal island. Milo, though the epochs of its eruptions are unknown, is a volcano of recent aspect, emitting sulphureous and ammoniacal vapors from its central crater, and streams of boiling water from several points. The Azores are of uniform volcanic constitution. Numerous submarine volcanoes exist in their immediate vicinity, whose eruptions have in some instances produced new islands; such as the island which appeared in 1720 between Terceira and St. Miguel, and that which in 1811 was seen by the captain of the Sabrina frigate, forming at a little distance from the latter island. The cone of the latter was elevated 300 feet above the sea, and contained a crater above 500 feet in diameter. These islands, being solely composed of fragmentary ejections, have since gradually yielded to the action of the waves and the currents, and become shoals below the water level. But the great volcanoes of the Azores are



the Pico, and St. George, in the islands of the same names. The former broke out in eruption in 1718, but has been tranquil ever since. Sarytcheff, in the north island of Nova Zembla, is the most northern of all the volcanoes at present known. (*Scrope and Daubigne on Volcanoes.*)

The vallies of Europe are, in extent, greatly inferior to those of the other continents of the world. The two largest are :—the valley of the Lower Danube, comprehending the plains of Bulgaria and Wallachia ; and the valley of the Middle Danube, which forms the kingdom of Hungary. The magnificent valley of the Po ranks third in point of size. Those of the Rhine, between Bâle and Mentz ; of the Upper Rhone, in Switzerland ; of the Drave, in Carinthia, are remarkable for their extent and beauty. The vallies of Norway and Scotland present the peculiar feature of a long and narrow basin, frequently containing a lake of corresponding shape. Of the other vallies, which the mountainous regions of Europe present to our view, we may mention the fine vallies of Savoy, Brescia, Bergamo and Tyrol, in the Austrian Empire ; those of the Cantons of Berne, Tessin, Uri, &c., in Switzerland ; of Aragon, Catalonia, Navarre and Grenada, in Spain ; of Beira and Tras-os-Montes, in Portugal ; of Dauphiny, Upper and Lower Pyrenees, the Eastern Pyrenees and Ariège, in France. But the most remarkable plain in Europe is that level tract which extends from the shores of the German Ocean to the Ural Mountains and the Caspian Sea, and comprehends the Netherlands, Northern Germany, Prussia, Poland, and the greater part of Russia, rising nowhere more than a few hundred feet above the level of the sea.

Although Europe presents no tract of any considerable extent that may properly be called a desert, yet unfertile plains, for the most part sandy, occur in several places. These are known by the names of *landes* in France, *steppes* in Russia, *putvens* in Hungary, &c. The most extensive are found in Russia, which presents, among many others, the steppe of Ryn, between the Volga and Oural ; the steppe of the Oural, between that river and the Don ; the steppe of Crimea, and the steppe of Petchora. Next to the steppes of Russia, the most remarkable tracts of a similar description occur in Norway and Sweden, especially in Norway, Lapland, and Wester Gottland. There are several in the Austrian dominions, especially in Hungary, where they are very extensive. They occur, also, in the neighborhood of Stade, Hanover, Lunenburg and Zell, in the kingdom of Hanover ; at Hamburg, and in Pomerania in Prussia ; and they occupy the greater portion of the surface of the departments of the Landes and the Gironde, in France. Similar tracts are found in the Neapolitan province of Terra di Bari. These deserts are generally covered with heaths, and a variety of unavailable mosses.

The physical formations of Europe greatly influence its CLIMATE, and in its several parts the climatic peculiarities are much modified by local circumstances. Hence it would be impossible to treat this subject in general terms. Its isothermal zones are very irregular, and confute all preconceived notions of latitudian climate. With the exception of Norway, Sweden, Lapland, and the northern parts of Russia, however, the whole of Europe, being situated within the temperate zone, suffers little from the effect of extreme heat or cold, and its average temperature is much higher than in Asia or America, on the same parallels. This circumstance may be owing to various causes : as the fact of its general elevation being less than that of Central Asia, and its proximity to the ocean, which always

modifies climatic influences. Another and more potent cause is the absence of those great accumulations of northern lands, over which the winds sweep in Asia and America, bringing along with them the intensity of the polar regions. The powerful influences of civilization; the extinction of the once vast forests and the progress of drainage, have also much ameliorated the climate of Europe; so much so, indeed, that Europe, at the present time, is entirely changed in this respect since the days of Julius Cæsar, if we may judge from the excessive colds he represents as peculiar to even sunny Italy itself. The clearing of lands, there is no doubt, greatly modifies a climate, as the every day experience of the American settler fully proves; and it seems to be an admitted fact, that when the interminable forests of that continent are hewn down, and the sun's rays are allowed to penetrate into the earth, the climate of America will become as elevated as that of Europe. Such are the teachings of experience, and such facts science uses in the synthesis of climatic demonstrations. But within the limits of Europe there are vast differences of climate, and, independent of the changes consequent on latitude, the temperature diminishes so much in proportion as we proceed eastward, that the inhabitants of Turkey, in latitude  $42^{\circ}$ , often experience a degree of cold unknown in the north of England, in latitude  $54^{\circ}$ . The hottest part of Europe is its south-western extremity. The south of Europe, protected by the great ranges of the Alps from the north and east winds, has generally a warm climate, but being also open to the winds from Africa, sometimes suffers from the influence of the *scirocco*. Humidity characterizes the climate of Western Europe. In respect to the duration of the seasons Europe may be divided into three zones. Southward of  $45^{\circ}$  the winter is mostly confined to rainy weather from October to February; snow rarely falls, and vegetation is scarcely impeded. The spring lasts from February to April or May; and the summer, during which the thermometer frequently marks  $107^{\circ}$ , and the autumn divide the remainder of the year. Between  $45^{\circ}$  and  $55^{\circ}$  the winter is the longest season, lasting generally from November to March or April; the spring occupies from April to June; the summer, the temperature of which often rises to  $92^{\circ}$ , lasts until September; and the autumn is the shortest season of all. North  $55^{\circ}$  the year can only be divided into two seasons—winter and summer. In the more northerly parts of this zone, the snow lies on the ground, and the rivers are frozen for more than six months in the year. Beyond the Arctic Circle the mercury freezes in the thermometer in September, and the desolation of winter is broken only by an intermission of intense heat, during which the sun is perpetually above the horizon. The absence of this luminary for the rest of the year is compensated for by the magnificent phenomena of the aurora-borealis, which shines in those regions with unexampled brilliancy.

The quantity of rain that falls depends much on locality, but as a general result, the more equatorial the country the greater is the degree of humidity. At Upsal, in Sweden, the annual fall is only 16.92 inches; and at St. Petersburg, 18.11; while at Carsagnana, in Spain, it amounts to 98.07 inches. The difference in England alone is enormous; at London, 22.7 falls annually; while at Keswick the annual measurement is 67 inches. In the mountain regions of Switzerland, the annual rains measure 51 inches; but in France and Central Europe, and in the northern parts of Italy, the mean rains amount only to from 21 to 35 inches.

The direction of the winds in so large a country is so various and contrary, that it is impossible to say which prevails. In winter, however, the

north and east prevail, and in summer, the south and south-west. But much depends on the direction of the mountain chains, and other circumstances, which contribute so much to influence all climates.

In order to exhibit, in a definite shape, the distribution of heat in the same latitudes, and in each season, we take the following table from Humboldt, *Ann. de Philos.* (xi. 188.):

PLACES.	Mean of Year.	Winter.	Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.
Edinburgh, (lat. 56,).....	47.5.....	38.6.....	46.4.....	58.2.....	48.4.....
Copenhagen, ( " ).....	45.6.....	30.8.....	41.2.....	62.6.....	48.4.....
Moscow, ( " ).....	40.2.....	10.8.....	44.0.....	67.1.....	38.3.....

The warmest month at Edinburgh had a mean temperature of 59.4, and the coldest 38.3; at Copenhagen, 65.0 and 27.2, and at Moscow, 70.6 and 6.0 respectively. Thus it will be perceived that the heat of summer in the more inland or easterly countries is much greater than in those on the sea-board of the west, and *vice versa* in regard to the winter months. The influence of large bodies of water is perceived in the one, and that of extensive tracts of land, which retain more permanently seasonal impressions, in the other.

The geology of Europe has been scientifically developed by Lyell and others. The following parts consist chiefly of primitive or transition formations:—the Uralian mountains; Lapland; nearly all Sweden; Finland and Norway; most part of Scotland, and the west of Wales; about half of Ireland; the north-west counties, and those of Devon and Cornwall, in England; the high ranges of the Alps; Corsica and most of Sardinia; the shores of Tuscany, Calabria Ultra, and the north-east parts of Sicily; Bohemia; Styria; parts of Hungary and Transylvania; Eastern Turkey and Greece; and the central chain of Caucasus. The secondary formations are chiefly confined to the lowlands of Scotland; the central half of Ireland; the north-east, central and southern counties of England; most part of France and Western Germany; the loftiest summits of the Pyrennees; the countries below the Alps; central and southern Italy; the north of Sicily; Istria; Dalmatia; the west of Turkey and Greece; Galicia and eastern parts of Transylvania; some considerable parts on the banks of Volga and Kami, and the north declivity of the Caucasus. The rest of Europe is composed chiefly of tertiary alluvial or diluvial formations, and has been obviously submerged at no very remote geological period.

Among the chief primary rocks of the great table land of Europe, are granite, gneiss and sienite. In the Alpine ranges, west of St. Gothard, calcareous rocks abound, often intermixed with clay-slate and mica-slate; east of St. Gothard, the central chain is accompanied by lofty calcareous ranges, full of caverns. Granite is abundant in most European countries, where primary formations are met with; gneiss is the rock in which the Saxon, Bohemian and Austrian metallic veins are situated. Transition limestone, which furnishes some of the best ornamental marbles, occurs in the north and west of England, south of France, the Alps and Pyrennees; graywacké, in which numerous metallic ores reside, abounds in Germany, Transylvania, the northern parts of Italy, &c. Coal exists extensively in the British Islands, Sweden, France, Germany, Bohemia, &c.; chalk is a formation almost peculiar to Europe, extending throughout a greater part of England, the north of France, and parts of Poland, Russia, Sweden and Spain. Tertiary beds, containing a great number of fossils, have been discovered in various parts of Europe; the most noted of these are the London and Paris basins. Mineral springs in great variety abound in Europe.

The reader is referred for more copious geological details to the special descriptions of the several countries of Europe,

The mineral products of Europe are a principal source of its pre-eminence and wealth. Mines of gold, silver, and the precious stones, except in Russia, are comparatively few in number; but, on the other hand, this portion of the globe is enriched by an almost inexhaustible supply of the more useful metals. Iron, copper, tin, coal and salt abound. To these we may add the products of the mines of quicksilver, without the aid of which the gold and silver mines of this and other countries could not have attained their present importance and value. In the following tabular view of the principal mineral productions of Europe, M. Balbi has endeavored, in reference to each article, to state the countries in which it is found in the order of the comparative extent of their mineral wealth:—

## MINERALOGICAL TABLE OF EUROPE.

DIAMONDS.....	Russia, ( <i>Gov. of Perm.</i> )
OTHER PRECIOUS STONES.....	Austria, ( <i>Bohemia, Hungary, and Transylvania,</i> ) and Saxony.
GOLD.....	Russia, ( <i>Perm and Orenburg;</i> ) Austria, ( <i>Transylvania, Hungary, Saltzburg, &amp;c.;</i> ) and Sardinia, ( <i>Piedmont, &amp;c.</i> )
SILVER.....	Austria, ( <i>ut supra;</i> ) Saxony, ( <i>Erzgebirge;</i> ) Hanover, ( <i>Harz;</i> ) Turkey. ( <i>Albania, Bosnia, &amp;c.;</i> ) Greece, ( <i>Macedonia;</i> ) Prussia, ( <i>Prov. of Saxony, Rhine, &amp;c.;</i> ) England, ( <i>Cumberland, Derbyshire, Flintshire, &amp;c.;</i> ) France, ( <i>Finisterre, Lozère and Vosges;</i> ) Sweden and Norway, ( <i>Buskerud in Norway, and Westeras and Stora-Kopparberg in Sweden;</i> ) Nassau, and Sardinia, ( <i>Savoy, &amp;c.</i> )
TIN.....	England; Saxony, and Bohemia.
QUICKSILVER.....	Spain, ( <i>Mancha;</i> ) Austria, ( <i>Carniola, &amp;c.,</i> ) and Bavaria, ( <i>Rhine, etc.</i> )
COPPER.....	Great Britain and Ireland, ( <i>Cornwall, Anglesea, Devonshire, etc., Cork and Waterford;</i> ) Russia, ( <i>Perm, etc.;</i> ) Austria, ( <i>ut supra;</i> ) Sweden and Norway; Turkey; Greece; Prussia; Spain, ( <i>Andalusia, etc.;</i> ) France, ( <i>Rhone, Upper Rhine, Pyrennees, etc.;</i> ) and Hanover.
IRON.....	Europe, ( <i>passim.</i> )
LEAD.....	Spain, ( <i>Granada, Andalusia, Catalonia, etc.;</i> ) Great Britain and Ireland, ( <i>Denbigh, Flint, Cumberland, Northumberland, York, Derby, etc., Lanark and Dumfries, Wicklow, Clare, Wexford, Armagh and Donegal;</i> ) Austria ( <i>ut supra;</i> ) Prussia, ( <i>Silesia, Rhine, etc.;</i> ) Hanover; France, ( <i>Finisterre, etc.;</i> ) Nassau; Saxony; Sardinia, ( <i>Savoy, Isl. of Sardinia, etc.</i> )
ZINC.....	England; Belgium; Prussia, ( <i>Silesia, etc.;</i> ) and Austria, ( <i>Carinthia.</i> )
COAL.....	Great Britain and Ireland, ( <i>South Wales, Northumberland, Durham, York, Derby, Lancaster, Cumberland, Flint, etc. Lanark, Midlothian, Fife, etc. Tyrone, Antrim, Leitrim, Kilkenny, Cork, etc.;</i> ) Belgium, ( <i>Mons, Namur, Liège, etc.;</i> ) France, ( <i>Nôrd, Loire, Upper Loire, Calvados;</i> ) Prussia, ( <i>Silesia, Westphalia, Rhine, etc.</i> ) and Austria, ( <i>Bohemia, Hungary, Lower Austria, Styria, Moldavia, etc.</i> )
SALT.....	Russia; Austria; France; Spain; Great Britain and Ireland; Portugal; Prussia; Wallachia and Moldavia; Sardinia; the two Sicilies; Bavaria; the Papal States; Norway and Sweden; Ionian Isles; Greece, &c.

At the commencement of the present century, America produced eleven times the quantity of silver at present derived from the mines of Europe; and the quantity of gold which it yielded was also much greater than that which Europe then produced. Since that period the produce of the American gold mines has somewhat diminished in quantity, and it is now less than that derived from the mines of Europe in their present extended state.

Russia alone, since the recent discovery of gold and platina in the Ural, produces six-sevenths of the whole quantity of gold mined in Europe. Hungary and Transylvania yield almost the remaining seventh. England, which is so rich in the common metals, produces but an insignificant quantity of the precious descriptions.

In the article of iron, England produces more than any single country in the world, and nearly a third of the whole iron made in Europe. Of the remainder, Russia produces a fourth part, France a fifth, and Sweden a tenth. The iron of Russia and Sweden is the best, and is well-adapted to the manufacture of steel. The iron, for ordinary purposes, made in England, has long been noted for its cheapness; but the best descriptions of English iron bring prices nearly as high as the finest descriptions of Sweden. Five-sixths of the total quantity of cast iron consumed in Europe, for the fabrication of machinery of all kinds, culinary utensils, &c., comes from the iron manufactories of Great Britain; about a tenth only from those of France, and a fortieth from the founderies of Prussia. It is remarkable that the produce of the iron mines, notwithstanding the slight intrinsic value of the metal, represents more than three-fourths of the value of the produce of the European mines of every description, and that the produce of the gold, silver, and platina mines, only a ninth part of that value.

The lead mines of Spain have hitherto supplied one-half the total of that mineral consumed in Europe, and England three-sevenths. France, and even Germany, produce, in proportion to their extent, but little of this metal.

The coal formations are extensive throughout Europe; but Great Britain is pre-eminently a coal country. England alone produces ten times as much coal as France, and about one-half more than is produced in the latter is yielded by the mines of Belgium and Prussia. This mineral is to the useful metals, what quicksilver is to gold and silver: without it the vast mineral wealth of Europe would for ever lie dormant. It would be a theme worthy of genius to descant on the part coal has had in the development of civilization.

The production of tin is almost peculiar to England, which produces twelve-thirteenths of the European total; Saxony and Bohemia supply the remaining thirteenth. England also furnishes nearly half the copper produced from the mines of Europe; about one-fifth of the remainder comes from Russia, and a tenth from Sweden. In France, copper is found only in trifling quantities.

The distribution of vegetation in Europe, as elsewhere, is much influenced by the soil and climate of localities. In the southern portions the products are much similar to those of Northern Africa. In Sicily, the date, palm, sugar-cane, and cotton-plant, several euphorbias, rare on this continent; the prickly-pear, the American Aloe, and the Castor-oil plant, flourish luxuriantly. The same plants are met with in the southern parts of Spain and Portugal. In Greece, Turkey, and Southern Russia, a large intermixture of Asiatic plants is found. The orange and the lemon grow to perfection in the sheltered vallies of Western Europe. The olive and the vine flourish in France, and the latter comes to perfection in the southern parts of England. Where the vine begins to fail, the apple and pear begin to flourish, and cider, in those regions, becomes, instead of wine, the common beverage of the people. The mulberry, pistachio, pomegranate, melon, &c., abound in the south; peaches preserve their full flavor

in the open air as high as latitude  $50^{\circ}$ , and the fig grows a little further north. Rice is cultivated to about  $47^{\circ}$ , but it requires a peculiar soil and climate; maize has nearly the same range.

The limits of the cultivation of the common cerealia or bread corns, are not well-defined, as the necessities of man often force him to raise corn under the most unfavorable circumstances. Generally, however, the parallel of  $57^{\circ}$  or  $58^{\circ}$  may be regarded as the northern limit of the cultivation of wheat in Europe; though in some favored spots in Finland it is raised as far north as  $60^{\circ}$  or  $61^{\circ}$ . The hardier grains, as rye, oats and barley, are cultivated in some sheltered situations on the coast of Norway, as high as  $69^{\circ} 30'$ ; but further east, in Russia, their cultivation has not been found practicable beyond  $67^{\circ}$  or  $68^{\circ}$ . The introduction of potatoes from the New World, which are now widely-diffused over almost every part of Europe, promises to be of peculiar advantage to the northern regions, as they are said to be extremely prolific in parts where corn will hardly ripen.

In ancient times nearly the whole surface of Europe was covered with dense forests. These, however, have in a great measure disappeared in the better cultivated and more populous countries. Germany, Poland, Russia, Sweden, Norway, and some parts of the Austrian Empire, are at present almost the only parts of Europe which contain forests of any very great extent. The natural orders of Amentaceæ and Coniferæ comprise the greatest number of the noblest trees in the woods of Northern and Central Europe. In these regions the oak is the lord of the forest, and often attains to an enormous size. It disappears about latitude  $60^{\circ}$ ; the ash fails at  $62^{\circ}$ ; the beech and lime are seldom found further north than  $63^{\circ}$ ; or firs and pines beyond  $70^{\circ}$ . The tree that grows in the highest latitude is the dwarf birch, and the last plant met with towards the pole, in Europe, is considered to be the "red snow," (*Palmetta nivalis*), a cryptogamic species. It must not, however, be supposed that the vegetation of Northern Europe is confined to those regions. On the Alps, the Pyrennees, and other mountain ranges, similar products are met with at various elevations, the temperature of which corresponds to that required by the individual; and on the declivity of *Ætna*, at different heights, the flora of the torrid zone, and that of the Arctic Circle, are both met with. But a marked difference from that of the rest of Europe takes place in the vegetation south of latitude  $44^{\circ}$ . The mountains there are covered with chesnut woods; evergreens take the place of oaks, and the maritime and stone pines of other coniferæ. The plane-tree, flowering-ash, carob, laurels, lentisks, oleanders, cistus, and a host of dyeing, medicinal, and aromatic plants abound, and the surface of the earth is almost continually covered with a carpet of brilliant and odorous flowers.

The animal kingdom in Europe is less varied than the vegetable; but this inferiority is fully compensated by the usefulness and value of its chief specimens of zoology. Some of the animals known to have existed on this continent are now extinct, or nearly so; the urus, or bison, is, however, still found in Poland; and the clearing of forests, &c., has greatly checked the increase of those that still exist. According to Cuvier the total number of species of the mammalia inhabiting this portion of the earth, is only about 150, and of this number only 58 are peculiar to Europe. The most formidable animals are the white bear, confined to the polar regions; the brown bear, once common throughout the continent, which now inhabits the Alps, Pyrennees, and other remote mountainous and wooded countries; the

wolf and the wild boar. The largest animals, (exclusive of the whale, walrus, &c., which inhabit the northern seas,) are the elk and reindeer, the latter of which is used as a beast of burden in the north. These kinds of deer give place in central Europe to the red deer and roebuck, and these again in the Alpine regions to the chamois and ibex. The other principal wild animals are the lynx, met with chiefly in the south; the wild-cat, fox, martin, otter, beaver, pole-cat, glutton, porcupine, hedge-hog, various kinds of weasels, squirrels, hares, rabbits, rats, mice, &c.

The domestic animals deserve more notice. The black cattle of Europe have attained to the highest perfection. The sheep is universally diffused. The chief races at present existing, are the Spanish "merino," Cretan, Wallachian and English. The merinos are most celebrated for their wool, but taken altogether the English are the most valuable. Goats are also very numerous, and the domestic hog, evidently descended from the ancient European wild boar, is omnipresent. The horses of Europe are unrivalled in speed, strength and courage. Some naturalists suppose them to be of Tartar breed, but there is no proof of such origin. The English heavy horses are unequalled for draught, and the race-horses for speed and bottom. The latter, and the hunters, have been crossed with Arab horses, the first of which was imported so late as the reign of James I. The ass of southern Europe is a fine and noble animal, but degenerates sadly in more northern latitudes. It is much valued for the breeding of mules, the sure-footedness and hardiness of which render them highly useful. The domestic cat seems to be a lineal descendant of the wild species.

The bird tribe is much more varied than that of quadrupeds. As many as 400 different species have been enumerated; but many of these are only birds of passage, and are indigenous to other lands. Four species of vulture inhabit the Alpine ranges, but are seldom seen in the higher latitudes. In the rocky and mountainous parts of the north their places are supplied by enormous eagles, falcons, large owls, and other birds of prey. Most of the birds of the Arctic region are aquatic. In the south there is a great intermixture of the birds of Africa and Asia, as the Balearic crane, pelican, flamingo, &c. The common sorts of game are generally diffused all over Europe; but the red-grouse is confined to Scotland, and is said to be the only species peculiar to Great Britain. Bustards abound in some parts of Turkey and Greece. In general, European birds cannot boast of very brilliant plumage, but they excel all others in melody.

The family of reptiles is not very numerous, and few are either large or venomous. In the Mediterranean a very delicate species of turtle (*testudo caretta*) is found, and in some of the Austrian lakes, the *proteus anguinus*, a singular link between reptiles and fishes. Of the latter named class of animals, the principal are the herring, cod, whiting, mackerel, haddock, mullet, anchovy and tunny in the oceans and seas; and the salmon, trout, carp, perch, &c., in fresh waters. The anchovy and tunny are almost confined to the Mediterranean, where their capture forms a valuable branch of industry. Crustacea are particularly numerous in the north, and the mollusca in the south; the latter are particularly abundant and various in the Gulf of Taranto, anciently so famed for the *murex*, affording the Tyrian dye.

In some parts of Europe, scorpions and tarantulas are sometimes troublesome; mosquitoes infest the south, and the gnat and gadfly the middle regions. Europe is generally, however, considered by naturalists as the

grand region of butterflies. The European "annelides" include the medicinal leech, so plentiful in the pools of Germany, Sweden and Poland. Radiated animals, zoophytes, &c., are particularly abundant on the southern coasts, where some of them, as the "actinias," are used as food, and where the coral fisheries employ many hands. (*Murray—Malte-Brun—Balbi, &c.*)

The population of Europe within the limits already described, is, according to the latest censuses and estimates, a fraction short of 253,000,000. Estimating the surface of Europe at 3,700,000 English square miles, this population is in a proportion of 70 inhabitants to each square mile.

It has been remarked by Malte-Brun, that in the two great regions of Europe, viz. the western and eastern, each portion, taken as a whole, is more populous the further it lies to the south. Thus, in the first of these two great divisions, the population of the northern portion is less than that of the central, and the population of the central than that of the southern. In the second the same difference will be observed, if we divide Russia into two portions; and then, for the purpose of establishing similar comparisons, combine the northern and central portions of Western Europe. In regard to the latter, we will find the population of the united portions to be about 127 to the square mile, and that of the southern portion to be 248 to the same extent of surface. In Eastern Europe, the number of inhabitants to the square mile, will be found to be 28 in the northern portion, and 51 in the southern. Thus the proportions in the same regions may be considered nearly analogous. Another cause regulating density of population may be noticed. If we compare the different states with one another, we shall generally find that those which possess many islands, and widely-extended coasts, have a greater command of the means of subsistence, than others which lie in the bosom of the land. Thus it happens that Britain and Holland, both of which are divided by natural or artificial channels into numerous islands, are, in proportion to the extent of their territory, the most populous of the European states. From the same cause population is more dense in France than in Austria, in the kingdom of Naples than in that of Sardinia, and in the Ionian Isles than in Turkey.

The present people inhabiting Europe, exclusive of those in the Caucasus, are said to be derived from ten distinct races or families. It is worthy of remark, that the more ancient the stock the less numerous are the people, which are either almost extinct, or have so amalgamated with other families as to have obliterated most traces of their original features. It is not, however, intended to inquire into the history of these races, but merely to mention their name and location, and other incidental circumstances in relation thereto. That department belongs rather to the æthnologist than the merely descriptive writer, and is altogether foreign to the purpose of this work.

1. The Spanish or Iberian family includes all the inhabitants of the Peninsula: the Portuguese, Basques, as well as the true Spaniards. Notwithstanding the various admixtures it has undergone in the lapse of centuries, this family is sufficiently distinct, in color, features and intellectual characteristics, and constitutes essentially a different race from any inhabiting the ultra-Pyreneine countries. The Spaniards have displayed the European character in their resistance to and final conquest of the Arabs; in their conquest and settlement of South America; in their progress in the fine arts, and in the production of such a genius as Cervantes.



2. In the Italians, the ancient type has been preserved, notwithstanding much admixture with Greek and German blood. They retain much of the classic beauty so well represented in ancient Roman statuary. The statues of Augustus and Napoleon, both of Italian original, are well-adapted in outline and feature for either sovereign, so alike have been the two in external appearance. Of the distinguished men produced by this race, it is superfluous to speak; all history is full of their deeds.

3. The Greek family comprises the inhabitants of the Grecian continent and islands, including the Illyrians, Albanians, Thessalonians, &c. The ideal type of these is to be found in the Apollo, the Venus de Medicis, and other fine remains of antiquity; and the reality in the statues of the great men in the museums of Italy, and in the modern Greeks. Though subjugated for nearly four hundred years, they have preserved themselves as a distinct people, and are now, as of old, remarkable for personal beauty. The genius of this family is displayed in the long line of illustrious warriors, poets, and orators, that adorn its early history. By the Greeks, the arts and civilization were spread over Europe, and to them we are indebted for all rational literature and science.

4. The Turkish or Tartar, is the only oriental race that ever succeeded in forming by conquest a permanent settlement in Europe. Little intermixed with European nations, they preserve all the peculiarities of their Eastern origin. The empire they have founded, however, is now tottering to its downfall, and had it not been for the jealousies of the European powers, would long since have ceased to exist.

5. The Celtic family, is recognized in the native Irish, the Highlanders, and the Welsh; the inhabitants of Bretagne, and parts of Belgium and Switzerland. They are the Gauls of Cæsar, and the Caledonians and Silures of Tacitus; and are distinguished from the Teutonic races, both physically and intellectually. They are darker in complexion and sharper in features. In the Irish they are essentially ugly. The intellectual endowments of this family are marked with more pleasing traits: they are capable of abstruse studies, and the elegant in their literature is very perceptible. The animal passions, however, are notoriously prominent, and too often more than a countervail to the intellectual and moral peculiarities, which they undoubtedly possess in a high degree. Naturally they are of an easy disposition, but extreme in their likes and dislikes, and their friendships and enmities are alike dangerous. As soldiers, they fight bravely and fiercely; as politicians, they are factious; but as husbands and wives, they are faithful to each other and kind to their offspring. There seems, however, to be among this race an incapacity to unite, and, as a consequence, they can never become a strong nation. Hitherto, and for a long period, they have been politically annexed to other nations, but it has always resulted to the discomfort of their allies, and promoted commotions and civil strife. Spain, Ireland, and Celtic Switzerland, are exemplars of this conduct, and in a great measure the same obtains in the United States. This race, however, has produced some great men: as Wellington, Emmet, and O'Connell, in the political world; Goldsmith and Moore, in literature; and a long catalogue in the walks of science and the arts.

6. The Teutonic or German family, though scarcely known two thousand years ago, is now the ruling race of Europe. It embraces the Swedes, Norwegians, Danes, Dutch, Germans, and the great mass of the Scotch and English. In its own country this family has never been conquered; but has been itself the most extensive and permanent of all conquerors, as

is shown by its conquest of France, England, Italy and Spain, and the still more extensive conquests it has, through these countries, achieved in foreign parts. It is still progressing in all that tends to a high degree of civilization, and will no doubt one day assume universal empire. Luther, Milton, and Newton, are fair representatives of the Teutonic race; while Gustavus Adolphus and Charles XII. exhibit its ruder and more vigorous features.

7. The next great family is the Slavonic, embracing Russians, Poles, and Lithuanians, and a portion of the Bohemians, the Wends, Dalmatians, Croats, Slavonians, Bosnians, Servians and Bulgarians. They are superior in energy to the Asiatic races, and have made considerable progress in civilization. Peter the Great is perhaps the most remarkable man produced by this race, and his portrait is a favorable specimen of it. The present Emperor of Russia is much superior in talents and education to the generality of the Slavonians.

8. The Finnish is a small family in the north of Europe, resembling in habits and features the Esquimaux of North America. They have made little progress in civilization, and many of them to this day lead a nomadic life.

9. Hungary, Transylvania, Wallachia, Moldavia, and Besarabia, are inhabited by a variety of races not easily ascertained; but they are said to be descended from the Magyars of Asia. The ancient inhabitants were the Pannonians and Dacians, whose robust and manly forms are well represented in their statues of their kings and warriors, many of which still exist. The present race is tall and handsome, and endowed with high intellectual qualities. If the ancestors of this race were of eastern origin, which is doubtful, they have retained none of the peculiarities of any of the existing races of Asia either in mind or body. They have attained to great civilization.

10. The Mongolian family, either in a nomadic or other rude state, such as the Samoyedes, the Soianes, Permians, Wotyuks, Kalmucs, and Kirghises, inhabit the north-eastern portion of Europe. Jews, a portion of the Semitic family, are dispersed over all the continent, but are most numerous in the rudest parts of Russia and Poland. In many parts their identity is almost lost by intermixture.

Asiatics, Africans, and indeed representatives of the whole world, are settled in Europe, but it would be an endless and futile task to specify them among Europeans. They will ever remain distinct or become annihilated.

We will now proceed to describe the position of Europe at the present day, in regard to its political divisions, governments, religions, &c. These, however, we shall only briefly enumerate, as they will be more fully described under the separate articles relating to each political family.

Christianity in its various forms sheds a benign influence over all the surface of Europe, and is professed, with few insignificant exceptions, by nearly the whole of its numerous inhabitants. The Turks alone, as a people, deny its authenticity.

The Roman Catholic Church extends its authority over almost the whole of France, Belgium, and Holland; the whole of Italy, Spain, Portugal, and Sardinia; seven-eighths of Ireland; the greater part of Austria; nearly one-half of the Swiss confederation and the secondary states of Germany, and over a fractional part of Turkey. The Greek or Eastern Church is established in Russia, the Ionian isles, the kingdom of Greece and the

three principalities of Servia, Wallachia, and Moldavia. Its doctrines are professed by nearly one-half of European Turkey, and by a very large moiety of the subjects of Austria, especially in Transylvania, Hungary, Croatia, Sclavonia, and Dalmatia.

The Protestant Churches, or those which in point of doctrine differ from Roman and Greek, are but proportionally small in number, but in intelligence and piety are pre-eminent, and are of several denominations. The Lutherans are the dominant sect in Prussia, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Hanover, Saxony, and in Wurtemberg and other German states. Its doctrines and forms are also adhered to by the inhabitants of the Russian provinces of the Baltic, and by a number of individuals in Austria, especially in Transylvania, Hungary, &c. The Calvinists prevail principally in Holland, the Swiss Cantons of Berne, Zurich, Bale, &c., &c., in the duchy of Nassau, Electoral Hesse, the principalities of Lippe, Anhalt, and in some of the other German states. Calvinists are also numerous in France, Prussia and Austria, and they form a vast majority of the people of Scotland. The Anglican or English Episcopal is the established Church of Great Britain and Ireland; but in point of political rights and privileges, Churchmen and dissenters have of late years been placed nearly on an equal footing.

It may be remarked with sufficient correctness, that the Roman Catholic, Protestant and Greek Churches constitute the three great religious and geographical divisions of Europe, since the first prevails in the southern, the second in the northern, and the last in the eastern countries. Besides these three great ecclesiastical divisions of Christian Europe, there are some minor religious communities, separated from the general mass; such as the Wesleyan and other Methodists, in Great Britain and Ireland; the Memnonites or Baptists, in Britain, Holland, Prussia, Russia and Germany; the Socinians in Transylvania, and the Unitarians in England; the Quakers in England and the Netherlands; and several other sects of inferior importance.

That portion of the population of Europe which does not include the professors of Christianity, may be classed under four religions, viz. 1. Islamism, the dominant religion of the Ottoman Empire and professed by all the Turkish population of Russia; 2. Judaism, professed by the Jews throughout Europe; 3. Samism, or the religion professed by the wandering hordes of Kalmucs in Russia; and lastly, Idolatry, which is to be found only among the uncivilized and rude nations in the extreme north and east of the continent. The few dissentients from all religious forms are too insignificant to enumerate.

The several states of Europe present every possible form of government, from the extreme of absolute despotism to that of pure democracy; but in general it may be possible to reduce these forms of government into three general classes, namely, autocracies or absolute monarchies, limited or constitutional monarchies, and republics. Each of these three classes, however, presents shades of character which are highly embarrassing; and there are even some states which cannot be brought under a rigorous classification, as sometimes a portion of their territory may belong to one class, and another portion to a second. Thus, in Austria, the several principalities have in most cases retained their original forms of government, each differing essentially from the other. Other monarchies again, like that of Prussia, exhibit shades of character so very delicate, that they may with equal propriety be placed either in the first or the second class. We reserve our further remarks on these points for our special descriptions, which will

include some account of the leading features of the respective governments of the different European states.

On arbitrary assumption, the five countries, namely, England, France, Russia, Prussia and Austria, are placed at the head of the European states. The question of precedence, however, is extremely complicated, and is open to the influence of many modifying circumstances. Thus, while in relation to military preponderance, none of the other states can rival Russia, Britain, on the other hand, surpasses them all in maritime strength. France in manufacturing industry and territorial wealth yields only to Britain ; and if its military force numerically is inferior to that of Austria, its extent of coast and its navy place it far above the latter. Least in point of political importance, probably, stand the little principalities of Lichtenstein and Monaco, and the seignory or lordship of Kniphausen, the last of which, with its microscopic territory of 17 square miles, containing less than 3,000 inhabitants, contributes a contingency of 20 men to the army of the Germanic Confederacy.

The existing political divisions of Europe comprehend *three* Empires, *sixteen* Kingdoms, *one* Ecclesiastical Elective Monarchy, *seven* Grand Duchies, and numerous Duchies, principalities, and other inferior orders of states, with eight or nine Republics. The following table will exhibit the title, form of government, religion, extent and population, of each approximately, and according to authentic accounts, to the 30th November, 1848.

## A SUMMARY VIEW OF THE STATES OF EUROPE.

## GEOGRAPHICALLY ARRANGED.

STATES.		Forms of Government.	Religions.	Extent in sq. miles.	POPULATION.	
					Absolute.	Rela- tive.
* G. Brit.	{ England and Wales.....	Constitutional Monarchy—lords and commons.....	Anglican....	57,960	15,906,749	274
	{ Scotland.....		Presbyterian	31,344	2,628,957	82
	{ Ireland.....		R. Catholic.	30,387	8,176,124	269
	{ Other British Islands, &c.)		Anglican....	534	177,656	332
France.....	R	Constitutional Democracy—president, council and assembly.....	R. Catholic..	204,355	35,000,000	166
Andorrè.....	R	Democracy—senate and two vighiers..	do. ....	144	15,000	104
Spain.....	R	Constitutional Mon.—senate and cortes	do. ....	187,288	12,194,572	65
Portugal.....	K	do. do. assembly.....	do. ....	36,510	3,600,000	98
Switzerland ( <i>details, p. 212</i> ).....	R	Confederate Democracy—diet.....	R. C. & Prot.	10,193	2,181,006	218
Belgium.....	K	Constitutional Mon.—two chambers.....	R. Catholic..	10,594	4,255,000	419
Holland†.....	K	do. do. do. ....	Protest. Ref.	13,679	3,051,446	223
Bavaria.....	K	Limited do. do. ....	R. Catholic..	28,435	4,370,977	156
Württemberg.....	K	do. do. do. ....	Lutheran....	7,568	1,682,338	222
Baden.....	GD	do. do. do. ....	Evangelical..	5,712	1,296,967	221
Hohenzollern-Heckingen.....	P	do. do. one chamber.....	R. Catholic..	136	21,000	153
Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen.....	P	do. do. do. ....	do. ....	383	45,000	113
Hessen-Cassel.....	EL	do. do. do. ....	Protest. Ref.	4,386	728,650	167
Hessen-Darmstadt.....	GD	do. do. two chambers.....	Lutheran....	3,198	811,503	253
Hessen-Homburg.....	Lgr	Absolute do. ....	Protest. Ref.	151	25,000	162
Nassau.....	D	Limited do. two chambers.....	Evangelical..	1,736	380,000	218
Waldeck.....	P	do. do. one chamber.....	do. ....	455	57,000	125
Lippe-Deimold.....	P	do. do. do. ....	Protest. Ref.	432	85,000	197
Lippe-Schaumburg.....	P	do. do. do. ....	do. ....	206	27,000	131
Saxony.....	K	do. do. two chambers.....	Protestant...	5,705	1,636,190	299
Sachsen-Coburg-Gotha.....	D	do. do. one chamber.....	Lutheran....	790	140,000	177
Sachsen-Meiningen-Hild- burghausen-Saalfeld.....	D	do. do. do. ....	do. ....	880	152,000	172
Sachsen-Altenburg.....	D	do. do. do. ....	do. ....	491	125,000	254
Sachsen-Weimar-Eisenach.....	GD	do. do. do. ....	do. ....	1,419	248,000	176
Reuss-Schleitz.....	P	do. do. do. ....	do. ....	448	70,000	155
Reuss-Greiz.....	P	do. do. do. ....	do. ....	145	32,000	220
Schwartzburg-Sonderhausen.....	P	do. do. do. ....	do. ....	359	55,000	153
Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt.....	P	do. do. do. ....	do. ....	410	67,000	139
Anhalt-Bernburg.....	D	States having limited powers.....	Evangelical..	336	47,000	140
Anhalt-Koethen.....	D	do. do. do. ....	Reformed....	310	40,000	129
Anhalt-Dessau.....	D	do. do. do. ....	Evangelical..	337	62,000	184
Brunswick.....	D	Limited sovereignty—one chamber.....	R. Catholic..	1,525	270,000	180
Hanover.....	K	Constitutional Mon.—two chambers.....	Protestant...	14,276	1,688,280	119
Oldenburg.....	GD	Absolute sovereignty.....	Lutheran....	2,470	270,000	109
Kniphausen.....	Ldp	do. do. ....	do. ....	17	3,000	176
Mecklenburg-Schwerin.....	GD	Limited do. one chamber.....	do. ....	4,701	485,000	103
Mecklenburg-Strelitz.....	P	do. do. do. ....	do. ....	1,094	88,000	82
Lübeck.....	P	do. do. do. ....	R. Catholic..	52	7,000	134
Lubeck.....	FC	Democracy—senate and comm. council.	Reformed....	142	48,000	337
Frankfort.....	FC	do. do. and legislature.....	do. ....	91	65,000	714
Bremen.....	FC	do. do. do. ....	Lutheran....	67	60,000	895
Hamburg.....	FC	do. do. do. ....	Protestant...	149	160,000	1,054
Austria†.....	Emp	Constitutional Mon.—States.	R. Catholic..	258,188	35,950,401	146
Prussia†.....	K	do. do. two chambers.....	Evangelical..	107,855	14,371,530	154
Denmark.....	K	do. do. provincial states.....	Lutheran....	21,856	2,033,275	93
Sweden and Norway.....	K	Limited Monarchy—diet and storting.	do. ....	292,440	4,304,599	14
Russia†.....	Emp	Autocracy.....	Greek ch. ...	2,021,887	52,943,847	25
Sardinia.....	P	Constitutional Monarchy.....	R. Catholic..	29,098	4,650,000	159
Monaco.....	K	Absolute Sovereignty.....	do. ....	50	7,000	740
Tuscany.....	GD	Constitutional Sovereignty—chambers.	do. ....	8,381	1,600,000	190
Lucca.....	P	( <i>part of Tuscany</i> ).....	do. ....	410	160,000	390
Parma.....	P	( <i>uncertain</i> ).....	do. ....	2,154	466,000	213
Modena and Massa.....	D	do. ....	do. ....	2,973	410,000	138
States of the Church.....	Pd	Constitutional Ecclesiastical Monarchy	do. ....	17,218	2,846,000	165
San Marino.....	R	Democracy—senate & coun. of Ancients	do. ..	21	7,500	857
Naples and Sicily.....	K	Constitutional Mon.—two chambers.....	do. ....	41,915	8,037,000	193
Turkey‡.....	Emp	Despotism.....	Mahomedan	135,140	12,180,000	66
Greece.....	R	Greece.....	Greek ch. ...	20,000	950,000	47
Ionian Islands.....	R	Council & chamb. ( <i>under Brit. protec.</i> )	do. ....	1,079	207,300	159
Grand total of Europe.....				3,684,841	254,778,867	69

ABBREVIATIONS.—Emp. Empire; K. Kingdom; El. Electorate; GD. Grand Duchy; D. Duchy; F. Principality; R. Republic; Pd. Papedom; FC. Free City; Lgr. Landgrave; Ldp. Lordship.

\* Malta, &c., Helgoland, Gibraltar, &c., dependencies of Great Britain, are included in the aggregates of their respective localities, but not in this table. They are small, and can make little difference in the totals.  
† Austria, Prussia, Denmark and Holland are represented in the German councils as sovereigns of German states. The names and extent of these possessions are exhibited in the descriptions of these several monarchies. See Austria, p. 267; Prussia, p. 299; Denmark, p. 307; and Holland, p. 235.

‡ Including Poland.

§ Austrian Italy is included in the Austrian aggregate—see p. 257.

¶ Including Wallachia, Servia, and Moldavia.

## THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

THE group of islands constituting this kingdom, and of which the islands of Great Britain and Ireland are the largest, and by far the most important, is situated between  $49^{\circ} 57'$  and  $69^{\circ} 49'$  north latitude, and between  $1^{\circ} 46'$  east, and  $10^{\circ} 27'$  west longitude. GREAT BRITAIN, the most extensive of the group, is politically divided into two countries—England and Scotland—which originally formed separate kingdoms, and which are still governed by different laws. IRELAND, the smaller of the large islands, is likewise to the same extent a distinct kingdom; for, though it has been subject to the crown of England since the 11th century, it nevertheless had an independent legislature until its union with Great Britain in 1801, and still enjoys the form of an independent government, administered by a viceroy, or Lord Lieutenant. These three kingdoms, though now consolidated into one, will require in their description separate sections, and will be described in the following order, viz: 1. ENGLAND and WALES; 2. SCOTLAND; and 3. IRELAND.

### I.—ENGLAND AND WALES.

ENGLAND, inclusive of the principality of Wales, occupying the southern portion of the island of Great Britain, and forming geographically the principal division of the United Kingdom, is situated between latitudes  $50^{\circ}$  and  $55^{\circ} 45'$  north, and between longitudes  $6^{\circ}$  west, and  $1^{\circ} 50'$  east. On the north, the only direction in which it is not surrounded by the sea, it is divided from Scotland by a series of rivers, and a chain of mountains. The greatest length from Lizard's Point in Cornwall, to Berwick-upon-Tweed, is about 400 miles, and the greatest breadth from St. David's Head, Pembrokeshire, to the east coast of Essex, is 300 miles. The area has been variously computed at 50,387 and 57,960 square miles, of which only one-fourth part is uncultivated.

England is generally a level or undulating country. In the north, some mountains traverse the surface in several directions; in the south, however, there are no considerable elevations, and the hills only serve to diversify the country, and give it that picturesque outline for which it is noted. The greatest part of the Scottish border is formed by the Cheviot hills, a chain of considerable elevation, and from which a range, varying from 1,200 to 3,000 feet, diverges southward, through Cumberland, Yorkshire and Lancashire, to the middle of Derbyshire. This chain forms the watershed of the north country. Connected with this, but almost separated from it by the valleys of the Eden and the Lune, is a lofty group of mountains, which cover a great portion of Westmoreland and Cumberland, where Scawfell, Helvellyn, Skiddaw and Bowfell rise respectively to 3,166, 3,055, 3,022, and 2,911 feet above the level of the ocean. The second great watershed of the country is formed by a range of table-lands, rising sometimes into hills, and extending in a tortuous line through the East Riding of Yorkshire, and the counties of Lincoln, Northampton, Oxford, Gloucester, Somerset and Dorset; where it terminates at the islands of Portland and Purbeck. It is chiefly composed of oolitic rocks, rising above a lias formation, and presents gen-

erally a bold escarpment to the west, with a regular slope to the east. This range forms the Cotswold, Mendip, Quantock and Brendon hills, in the last of which Dunkerry beacon, one of the highest summits in the west of England, rises to the height of 1660 feet. The Chalk hills which traverse the south and east, diverge from Salisbury plain. One of these extends through Hampshire and Sussex to Beachy Head, forming the "South Downs;" a second extends in nearly the same direction through Hampshire, Surrey and Kent, and forms the "North Downs;" while the third and most important range pursues a north-easterly direction, and forms the eastern border of the "Fens." The south-western counties are occupied with mountains of granitic formation, sometimes called the Devonian range, the principal chain of which extends from the vale of Exeter to the Land's End. Wales is occupied by a system of high and rugged mountains, which constitute several groups and chains, and intersect the country in various directions, between the Bristol Channel and the Irish Sea. The highest and most broken part of England is found near its western coast, while the principal plains and lowlands slope towards the German Ocean.

Besides the moorlands which cover a large portion of the mountain districts, there are other tracts of that description, which deserve notice. The eastern moorlands in the North Riding of Yorkshire, 30 miles in length, and 20 in breadth, consist chiefly of stony hills and peat mosses, with a cold and ungenial climate. There are, however, even in this tract, some fertile and well-cultivated dales. The moorlands of Staffordshire occupy the northern portion of the county, at an elevation of 500 to 1154 feet, and are of various quality and aspect. Dartmoor, in Devonshire, covers a space of from 200,000 to 300,000 acres, at a mean elevation of 1,700 feet. Its surface is extremely rugged, and the soil, covered with fragmentary rock, is thin and poor. In the highest part of the moor there is a morass of about 80,000 acres. In the western part of Somersetshire is Exmoor, a tract of about 20,000 acres, which is mostly waste and irreclaimable, but produces a small hardy breed of horses, and affords pasture to about 20,000 sheep of a peculiar breed, to which it gives its name. Besides these hilly moorlands, there are extensive heaths in England, principally in Surrey, Herts and Dorset, which consist of exceedingly poor land, and are generally flat and uninteresting.

These ranges of mountains, hills and moorlands, divide the country into a great variety of plains and vallies, which are traversed by rivers and streamlets, few of which are naturally navigable. A few of the more interesting of these districts may be enumerated. The Vale of York may justly be regarded as the principal river vale of the island. It extends about 60 miles in length and 15 in breadth, and contains an area of 1,000 square miles. Holderness, lying between the Humber and the sea, is a plain with a low but undulating surface, of about 270,000 acres. The city of Carlisle is placed in the centre of a large plain of 300,000 acres. The Vale of the Severn, one of the most fertile districts in England, extends through Gloucestershire and Worcestershire, for 40 miles. The Vale of Exeter contains 200 square miles; and the Vale of Taunton, about one half the extent, produces the finest crops and fruits, and enjoys a particularly mild climate. Between the North and South Downs is the Weald of Kent, Surrey and Sussex, a level tract of 1,000 square miles. The Fens form a level tract of about 400,000 acres of very low, marshy lands, lying around the Wash, principally in Cambridge and Lincoln, but partly also in Northampton, Norfolk, Suffolk and Huntingdon. Romney Marsh, in Kent, is connected

with the Welland, Denge and Guilford marshes, in Surrey, which together form a tract of 50,000 acres, the greater part of which is rich and productive. The marshes of Somersetshire are likewise of considerable extent and importance. These lie along the Bristol Channel, and are traversed by the rivers Axe, Brue and Parret, and in point of fertility are not surpassed by any in the kingdom. Salisbury Plain and Marlborough Downs are also important tracts. But the largest plain in England is that which extends from the Thames north-eastward, through Essex, Suffolk and Norfolk, comprehending nearly the whole of these counties, with a considerable portion of those bordering upon them to the west.

The sea-coasts of England present every variety of form, and are much modified by the character of the adjacent country. In some places, as in Cornwall, Kent, part of Norfolk and Wales, they are high and steep; while in other places they are low, sandy and marshy; but exhibit, on the whole, appearances so various as scarcely to admit of generalization. Though partaking more of a level than the rugged character, they still differ essentially from their opposite coasts of Flanders, Holland, &c., which present one continued flat for more than 300 miles. The only part of England, indeed, that bears any resemblance to these are the coasts of Lincolnshire and the coasts of the Wash, in the adjoining counties of Cambridge and Norfolk.

The whole coast is indented with arms of the sea, forming bays and estuaries of considerable importance. On the eastern coast are the estuaries of the Tyne and Tees, in Northumberland and Durham; Runswick Bay, Robin Hood's Bay, Filey Bay and Bridlington Bay, on the coast of Yorkshire; the Humber, a large estuary between York and Lincoln; the Wash, between Lincoln and Norfolk; Solebay, off Southwold, in Suffolk; the estuaries of the Stour and of the Thames; Yarmouth Roads, and the Downs, at the eastern extremity of Kent; on the south coast are the Solent, Southampton-Water and Spithead, forming, together, a large navigable strait between Hampshire and the Isle of Wight. The Solent is in most places about two miles wide, but a little to the north of the rocks called the "Needles," the western point of the Isle of Wight, it is contracted to less than a mile by a remarkable tongue of land, which projects from Hampshire; Hurst Castle occupies the extremity of this projection, and owing to the narrowness of the passage, the tide runs through it with such force that it has deepened the channel to 28 fathoms. Southampton-Water is a deep inlet, stretching upwards of 10 miles into Hampshire, and navigable for vessels of considerable burthen. Spithead derives its name from a sand bank called the "Spit," which extends about three miles in a south-easterly direction from Gosport. The other bays, &c., on this coast are at St. Helen's Road, off the east of the Isle of Wight; Studland Bay, on the Dorsetshire coast; Torbay and Start Bay, in Devonshire; Portland Roads, a good anchorage on the east side of Portland Island; Plymouth Sound, between Devon and Cornwall; the estuary of the Tamer and Plym; Polkerris Bay, between Plymouth and Falmouth; Falmouth Harbor and Mount Bay, off the coast of Cornwall. On the western coast we find St. Ives' Bay, in Cornwall; Barnstable Bay, in Devon; the Bristol Channel, a deep gulf between Wales, on the north, and Devon and Somerset, on the south, about 25 miles wide at its mouth, and contracted to eight where it is joined by the estuary of the Severn; Bridgewater Bay, Swansea Bay and Caermarthen Bay, dependencies of the Bristol Channel; Milford Haven



and St. Bride's Bay, in Pembroke; Cardigan and Caernarvon Bays; Menai Strait, between Caernarvon and the Isle of Anglesea, which is crossed by a magnificent suspension bridge, the largest in the kingdom; Holyhead Bay; Lancaster and Morecambe bays, in the north-western part of Lancashire; the Soleway Firth, &c., &c. Many of these bays and inlets are important to the commerce of the country, while others are shallow, and obstructed by bars, banks and shoals, which are visible at low water.

The capes best known, and of most importance to the mariner, are:—  
 \*Flamborough-Head and \*Spurn-Head, Yorkshire; Gibraltar Point, in Lincolnshire; Hunstanton Cliff, at the eastern entrance of the Wash; \*Cromer Headland and Winterton-Ness, on the coast of Norfolk; Oxford-Ness, in Suffolk; the Naze, in Essex; \*North Foreland, \*South Foreland, and Dungeness, in Kent; \*Beachy-Head and Selsea-Bill, in Sussex; \*Hurst-Point, in Hampshire; Dunnose-Head and the \*Needles, Isle of Wight; St. Alban's-Head, and \*Portland-Bill, in Dorset; Hope's Nose, Berry-Head, Start-Point, Prawle-Point, Balt-Head and Stoke-Point, in Devon; Rame-Head, Deadman's-Point, Lizard's-Point, Land's-End, Cape Cornwall, Trevoze-Head, and Pentire, in Cornwall; Hartland-Point, Baggay-Point, and Mort Point, in Devon; Penarth-Head, Mumbles-Head, and Worms-Head, in Glamorganshire; St. Goven's-Head, St. Ann's-Head, St. David's-Head, and Strumble-Head, in Pembrokeshire; Brach-y-Pwll, the south-western point of Caernarvon; \*Linis-Point or Llanelian, the north-eastern extremity of Anglesea; Great Orme's-Head, in Denbigh; \*Point of Aire, in Flintshire; \*St. Bee's-Head, in Cumberland; and \*Point of Aire, Isle of Man.

The coasts on every side present a multitude of islands, which, more or less, are important to the navigator, and some are large and populous, while others are mere rocks, and of use only as beacons to direct the seaman through the treacherous seas which surround the shores of England. The more noted are: *off the east coast*—Holy Island, or Lindisfarne, in North Durham, celebrated for the remains of its ancient abbey, and a castle built upon a lofty rock; \*Fern Islands and Staple Islands, two groups of rocks lying off Bamborough Castle in Northumberland; Coquet Island, also in Northumberland; the islands of Mersea, Osey, Northey, Foulness, Wallasea, Potten and Canvey, lying off the coast of Essex; Sheppey Isle, off the north coast of Kent; and the Isle of Thanet, the north-eastern portion of Kent, formed by the two branches of the river Stour, which were anciently a strait or arm of the sea. *Off the south coast are*—West Therney Island, in Sussex; Heyling Island in Hampshire; the Isle of Wight, a large and beautiful island, called the garden of England, in Hampshire; Purbeck and Portland Islands, two peninsulas off the coast of Dorset, noted for their quarries. Portland is a vast mass of freestone, joined to the mainland by a shingly beach nine or ten miles long, called the Chesil Bank; Eddystone Rock, on which the celebrated lighthouse is erected; \*Longships Rocks, 3 miles west of Land's End; and the Scilly Islands, a group 17 in number—the largest of which are St. Mary's, Fresco, St. Martin's, Ganilly, Bryer, and St. Agnes. The Norman or Channel islands, which have been an appendage of the English Crown since the eleventh century, lie off the south coast of the English Channel. The principal of these are Jersey, 12 miles by 5 or 6; Guernsey, 9 miles by 6; Alderney, Sark, Herm, Caskets, and many other islands and rocks of small extent. Between Alderney and Cape La

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\* The site of a lighthouse.

Hague, in France, the tide rushes through with great impetuosity, from which circumstance the passage has got the name of the "Race of Alderney." On the west coast we find \*Lundy Island, at the entrance of the Bristol Channel; Barry Island, off Glamorganshire; \*Flatholm and Steep-holm, near the mid-channel, opposite Bridgewater Bay; Caldy, Stockham, Skomer, Grasholm, \*Smalls, Ramsey, Bishop and his clerks, all on the coast of Pembroke; Cardigan Island, at the mouth of the Teify; St. Ludwal Islands, \*Bradsea Island; Anglesea, itself a county; Holyhead, and \*South Stack, west of Anglesea; \*Skerries Island; Helbre Island, at the entrance of the Dee; \*Black Rock, at the entrance of the Mersey; \*Walney Island, situated on the northern entrance to Morecambe and Lancaster bays: the large and populous Isle of Man; and the \*Calf of Man. This catalogue, however, contains numerically a few only of the hundreds which beset the coasts—those of lesser importance we must omit.

Besides the islands, there are other noted places which may with propriety be adverted to—as the Sandbank, off Spurn Head, on which is a floating light; Dudgeon Shoal, 26 miles north of Wells, in Norfolk; the Anchorage of Lynn Well floating light at the mouth of the Wash; \*Newarp Sandbank, on the Norfolk coast; the Anchorage of Stanford Channel, off Suffolk; Galloper Sandbank, 20 miles south of Oxford-ness; \*Sunk Sandbank, at the mouth of the Thames; the Anchorage of the Nore, between the Thames and Medway navigations, about three miles north-east of Sheerness; Goodwin Sands, near the north sandhead of which the Goodwin floating light is moored, and about seven miles south-south-east of the North Foreland; and the Anchorage of the Gull Stream floating light, inside the Goodwin Sands, and opposite to Sandwich. All these are on the east coast. On the south coast are \*Owers Shoal, off Sussex, &c.; while on the west coast are found a number of equally important localities, with the position of which it is essential for the mariner to be acquainted.

None of the rivers of England are very large, but their value to the commerce of the country is in the highest degree important. The Thames, which is formed by the Lech, Colne, Thame and Isis, is perhaps the best navigable stream in the kingdom, and certainly it is the most frequented. It takes its rise in Cotswold Hills in Gloucestershire. Below the junction of the streams above named, it takes the name of Isis, and after its junction with the Thame, near Dorchester, it becomes the Thame-isis or Thames. From this point it flows eastward to the German Ocean, receiving in its course a number of fine streams, which drain the adjoining counties. The Medway, one of its tributaries, is a large river with a wide estuary, and is navigable for the largest ships up to Chatham. The Severn rises in the east side of Plinlimmon, in Montgomeryshire, and flows in a circuitous direction through Salop, Worcester and Gloucester, and enters the Bristol Channel. It is a larger river than the Thames. In the first part of its course it preserves the characteristics of a mountain stream, being clear, and at times bordered by picturesque scenery, but on leaving Wales and entering the more level country, it becomes a full, slow-flowing river, and admits of easy navigation. Its principal affluents are the Teme and the Upper and Lower Avon. The tide at the mouth of the Lower Avon rises 48 feet. The Wye, celebrated for its romantic and beautiful scenery, has its rise in the south side of Plinlimmon, near the sources of the Severn, flows in a winding course through Radnor and Hereford, and after separa-

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\* The site of a lighthouse.

ting Gloucestershire and Monmouthshire, unites with the Severn below Chepstow, where the tide rises to 60 feet. The Wye is navigable for barges for upwards of 100 miles. The Trent rises in the moorlands of Stafford, and after receiving many affluents from Leicestershire, Warwickshire, Derbyshire, &c., falls into the Humber. It is navigable to Burton, in Derbyshire, 117 miles, in which it falls only 118 feet. The Hull is a small stream in the East Riding of Yorkshire, having at its mouth the great commercial port of Kingston-upon-Hull. The following are the other principal rivers:—the Till, Aln, the Coquet, Wensbeck, Blyth, Tyne, Derwent, in Northumberland; the Wear, in Durham; the Tees, between Durham and Yorkshire; the Esk, in Yorkshire; the Witham and Glen, in Lincolnshire; the Nen, in Northamptonshire, joined by the Welland from Leicestershire and Rutlandshire; the Great Ouse from Buckinghamshire, which flows through the counties of Bedford, Huntingdon, Cambridge and Norfolk, into the Wash, and is joined by the Tove in Northamptonshire; the Cam, or Granta, in Cambridgeshire, the Lark and the Kennet from Suffolk, the Little Ouse, the Wissey and the Nar, from Norfolk; the Bure, Yare and Wensom in Norfolk; the Waveney, between Suffolk and Norfolk; the Deben, Orwell, and Stour, in Suffolk; the Colne, Blackwater and Chelmer, in Essex; the Stour in Kent; the Rother, Cuchmere, Ouse, Adur, and Arun, in Sussex; the Anton or Test, and the Itchin, in Hampshire; the Avon from Wiltshire, and the Stour from Dorchester, which enter the sea in a united stream between the Needles and Poole Harbor; the Frome, which falls into Poole Harbor; the Otter, Exe, Teign, Dart, Plym, Torridge, Waldon, and Taw, in Devonshire; the Tamer between Devon and Cornwall; the Stoke, Parret, Brue, and Yeo, in Somersetshire; the Usk, the Taff, the Towey, Teifi, Rheidiol, Dyfi, Conway, Clywyd, &c., in Wales; the Dee in Wales and Cheshire: the Mersey with its tributaries, the Weaver and Bollin, from Cheshire, and Irewell and Roch from Lancaster, forming a large estuary on which stands Liverpool; the Ribble and its tributaries the Darnen and Douglas; the Wye; the Lune, on which stands Lancaster, and which is so celebrated for its fine vale and its plentiful supply of salmon, &c.: the Duddon in Westmoreland; the Cocker and the Eden, which are joined by the Caldew and Petteril, in Cumberland, &c., &c.

The lakes of England are more noted for the picturesque beauty of their scenery than for their extent. Windermere, between Westmoreland and Lancashire, is the largest, and occupies an area of about one square mile. Ulleswater, the second in size, on the north-eastern side of Helvellyn, is partly in Cumberland and partly in Westmoreland; Hawes-water is in Westmoreland, about 5 miles east of Helvellyn; Thirlmere or Leathes-water lies on the western side of Helvellyn; Coniston water lies west of Windermere, in Lancashire, &c. The other lakes are Rydal and Grassmere waters, Derwent-water, called also Keswick Lake; Bassenthwaite-water, north of Keswick; and Crummock-water, Buttermere, Lowes-water, Ennerdale-water, and West-water, in the south-west of Cumberland. Two lakes, named Whittleseamere and Ramseyere are situated in the north of Huntingdonshire. Bala Lake, in Merionethshire, is the largest in Wales, being about four miles long and one in mean width.

The surface of England includes specimens of the whole extent of the series of rocks, from the primary, which are found in the ranges of mountains on the west, to the lowest of the tertiary, which compose several districts in the south-east; strata intermediate to these divisions being found in

succession, in proceeding from the west and north towards the east and south.

In Cornwall and Devonshire, eminences of granite, serpentine, and feldspar-porphry, occur, while the slopes resting on them are composed of different kinds of slate. The granite of this district is extensively used for paving in London, though considered less hard and durable than that brought from Scotland. The Welsh mountains are composed chiefly of varieties of slate with some intermixture of volcanic rocks, as basalt and trap; while a rich coal-field, one hundred miles in length and from five to ten in breadth, rests upon their southern verge, extending from Glamorgan into Pembrokeshire, being the largest coal-field in Great Britain. The northern range of mountains is also chiefly composed of slate rocks, there being only one mountain of granite near Shap in Westmoreland.

Between these ranges of mountains and a line drawn from Exmouth, through Bath, Gloucester, Leicester, Nottingham, and Tadcaster, to Stockton-upon-Tees, the surface is composed of the lower secondary strata, including rich beds of coal, the existence of which in this situation is mainly what has enabled England to become the first manufacturing country in the world. The eastern parts of the counties of Durham and Northumberland, from the Tees northward to Berwick, form a peculiarly valuable coal-field, of numerous beds, from which the metropolis and other cities in the east of England and elsewhere are supplied with this important mineral. Another coal-field of great value, and that upon which the manufactures of Manchester depend, extends northwards from Macclesfield to Oldham, and thence westward to Prescot near Liverpool. A coal-field near Wolverhampton, in Staffordshire, is the most valuable in the centre of England; upon it depend the extensive metallic manufactures of Birmingham.

To the east of the line drawn from Exmouth to Bath, and thence by Gloucester, Leicester, and Tadcaster, to Stockton-upon-Tees, we find the upper rocks of the secondary formation, presenting in succession red sandstone and red marl, lias limestone and clay, oolitic limestone, green sand with clay, and finally chalk. Connected with the red marl, great strata of rock-salt are found; these are extensively dug in Cheshire and Worcestershire for domestic use. Lias, which extends from Lyme in Dorsetshire to Whitby in Yorkshire, is remarkable for the remains which it presents of the large Saurian reptiles. Beds of oolite limestone, so called from the small egg-like globules contained in it, cover the southern part of Gloucestershire, and a great part of Oxfordshire, Northamptonshire, Rutlandshire, and the eastern side of Lincolnshire. The Portland stone, so extensively used for building, and which is quarried in the island of Portland, belongs to this class of rocks. The chalk exists everywhere to the south-east of a line commencing near Dorchester on the south coast, and passing through Wilts, Berks, Norfolk, and so on, to Flamborough Head—excepting in Sussex and Kent, where it has been carried off by denudation, exposing a peculiar formation called the *wealden*, and in the bed of the Thames near London, and one or two other places, where tertiary beds of clay occur.

Tin-ore, containing about three parts metal out of four, is found in thick veins or vertical beds in the granite of Cornwall, where it has been wrought since before the conquest of the country by the Romans. Copper-ore is also found extensively in that district, generally in continuation of veins, which, in the upper parts, have been composed of tin-ore; and in several of the same veins, lead, zinc, and antimony are found. A mountain of copper-ore, named Parys Mountain, has long been wrought in the Isle of

Anglesea, but is now supposed to be nearly exhausted. Next in importance to coal, as a mineral product, is iron, which is extensively diffused throughout England, though chiefly wrought in the neighborhood of coal, on account of that fuel being required for smelting it. This valuable metal is produced in South Wales to the amount of 380,000 tons annually. The chief other districts where it is wrought are Staffordshire, Worcestershire, and Yorkshire; the entire produce in the year being a million of tons. In an account of the mineral productions of England, it would be improper to overlook its clay, so extensively used in the manufacture of pottery (chiefly in Staffordshire,) and in making bricks and tiles for building.

The great south-east division of England, in which a comparatively level surface prevails, exhibits a soil which is either chiefly chalky, or chiefly clayey, according to the character of the substratum. Interspersed are a few sandy tracts, of which Bagshot Heath may be cited as an example. In the mountainous districts, the usual light soil resulting from the early rocks prevails, excepting where, in the north, there has been a peaty admixture. Upon the whole, England may be said to possess a large proportion of good and productive soil. Probably not above one-ninth of the entire surface (Wales being included) is unsuited to tillage.

The climate of England is, as already mentioned, remarkable for its exemption from extremes of heat and cold. It displays an uncommon amount of variation within a narrow range. The average temperature in winter is about 42° of Fahrenheit; in summer, the day temperature is generally about 62°. It is only on rare occasions that the thermometer reaches 80°, or sinks below 20°. The neighborhood of the sea, which partly accounts for this moderation, is also the cause why the climate of England is more humid than is usual in continental countries of similar latitude. Being inclined to cold and damp, it is more favorable to the growth than to the ripening of vegetable productions. It is certainly not unfavorable to either the physical or moral condition of the people. Perhaps even its uncertainty has been the subject of too much grumbling. On this point we may adduce the cheerful opinion of Charles II., as recorded by Sir William Temple. "I must needs," says Sir William, "add one thing more in favor of our climate, which I heard the king say, and I thought new and right, and truly like a king of England that loved and esteemed his own country: it was in reply to some of the company that were reviling our climate, and extolling those of Italy and Spain, or at least of France. He said he thought that was the best climate where he could be abroad in the air with pleasure, or at least without trouble and inconvenience, the most days of the year, and the most hours of the day; and *this he thought he could be in England more than in any other country in Europe.*" Devonshire and some adjacent districts on the southern coast enjoy a temperature which in winter is, at an average, two, three, four, and even in some instances five degrees above the rest; and these districts are therefore recommended for the residence of persons afflicted by pulmonary disease.

The most conspicuous feature in the botany of England is the fresh and luxuriant herbage, resulting from the humidity of the climate, and which, though apt to be overlooked by the natives from familiarity, never fails to strike the minds of foreigners with surprise.

Much of the surface was formerly under wood; but this has for ages been chiefly confined to particular forests, to the neighborhood of great mansions, and the enclosures of fields. Several large royal forests still ex-

1st in England, the most considerable being New Forest in Hampshire, (66,942 acres,) and Dean Forest in Gloucestershire, (23,015 acres.) That of Windsor, though famed from its situation and the poetry of Pope, is much smaller, being only 4,402 acres. These were anciently the scenes of courtly sport, but are now in part reduced to cultivation, or reserved for the production of timber to be used for the public service. The *parks* around the seats of the nobility and gentry are a peculiar and most inviting feature of the English landscape. A mixture of green open glades with masses of old well-grown timber—they are scenes of great sylvan beauty; while the existence of so much pleasure-reserved ground in a country where nearly every acre would be profitable under tillage, conveys a strong impression of the opulence of England. The principal trees are the oak, elm, beech, ash, chestnut, sycamore, poplar and willow. The vine was at one time extensively cultivated in southern England, but is now seen only in a few detached places.

The leading grain in England is wheat; barley, oats, and rye, being in a great measure local to the less favored districts. The turnip and potato are almost everywhere cultivated: and peas, beans, and clover, are extensively diffused. Hops are produced in the counties of Surrey, Worcester, and Hereford. Hemp, flax, and some other useful productions of the soil, are less conspicuous. The principal fruit-trees are the apple, pear, cherry, and plum; but many others are cultivated under particularly careful circumstances. The English garden produces a great variety of pot-herbs, most of which have been introduced from the continent within the last three centuries.

Of the useful animals, England possesses a considerable variety. Her draught-horses are remarkable for their bulk, generally fine condition, and great strength. The race and riding-horse have been improved by the best blood of Arabia and Barbary. There are excellent breeds of both sheep and cattle; and the pig is also an animal in prime condition, and extensively reared. Some of the ancient wild animals, as the wolf, boar and beaver, are now extinct, and others, as the stag and wild-ox, are very rare. The hare, partridge, and pheasant, are the chief game animals, grouse being only found, and that in small amount, in some of the northern wolds. Most of the smaller quadrupeds, birds, insects, &c., common in the same latitude, are found in England. The nightingale is said to be not heard farther north than Yorkshire. The rivers present trout, perch, &c., and the adjacent seas abound in herring, mackerel, sole, pilchard, and other edible fishes.

Agriculture is, in England, in a progressive state, but is yet not nearly so far advanced as in the better parts of Scotland. Previous to the eighteenth century, no advance had been made from the most simple modes of tillage and husbandry. The chief improvements since then are thus enumerated in a popular work;—"The gradual introduction of a better system of rotation, since the publication of Tull's *Horsehoeing Husbandry*, and other agricultural works, from 1700 to 1750; the improvement of live-stock, commenced by Bakewell, about 1760; the raised-drill system of growing turnips, the use of lime, and the convertible husbandry, by Pringle, and more especially by Dawson, about 1765; the improved swing-plough, by Small, about 1790, and the improved thrashing machine, by Mickle, about 1795. The field-culture of the potato, shortly after 1750; the introduction of the Swedish turnip, about 1790; of spring wheat, about 1795; of sum-

mer wheat, about 1800 ; and of mangel-wurzel more recently, have, with the introduction of other improved field-plants and improved breeds of animals, contributed to increase the products of agriculture ; as the enclosing of common field lands and wastes, and the improvements of mosses and marshes, have contributed to increase the produce and salubrity of the general surface of the country."

Mr. M'Culloch calculates that twelve millions of acres are cultivated in England as follows :—

	<i>Acres.</i>
Wheat,.....	3,800,000
Barley and Rye,.....	900,000
Oats and Beans,.....	3,000,000
Clover,.....	1,300,000
Roots, (turnips, potatoes, &c.), .....	1,300,000
Hops and garden products, .....	150,000
Fallow, .....	1,650,000
	<hr/>
	12,000,000

The value of the crops is estimated by the same writer at £72,000,000. He also calculates 17,000,000 acres of pasture-land, as producing £59,000,000.

The chief defects of the agricultural system of England are in the modes of tillage. Cumbersome machinery is employed to do what might be better done by a lighter and cheaper kind ; thus, five horses, and even more, are sometimes seen at one plough, while the heaviest lands in Scotland require only two. The virtue of draining is scarcely dreamt of in many districts of England, while in Scotland it is in some places doubling the produce, besides improving the salubrity of the climate. English farmers are too little educated to be ready to adopt improved modes of agriculture ; and, amongst the class of landlords, these have hitherto been too much overlooked. It seems surprising, yet is quite true, that in one district of the island of Great Britain, expensive and unproductive modes, scarcely in the least better than those which prevailed during the wars of the Roses, will be followed without the least suspicion that they are wrong, although other districts, which might be reached by a day's journey, present appearances of a reflecting skill and dexterity, the general diffusion of which would be attended with incalculable benefit to both landlords and tenants. It is gratifying, however, to know that this state of things is not likely to last much longer. The English nobility and gentry are now supporting an agricultural association, which is to proceed after the manner of the eminently useful and kindred societies in the United States, in promoting improvements in this important branch of the national industry. We may therefore hope, in another generation, to see the splendid soil of England turned to its full account.

The natural scenery of England is generally of a pleasing, rather than of a grand or picturesque character ; yet there are some portions of the country which are considered attractive on account of their romantic beauty. We shall notice the chief of these.

The south-west part of the county of Cumberland and the north-west part of Westmoreland, comprehend a range of lofty mountains—Skiddaw, Saddleback, Helvellyn, and some others of scarcely less note—amidst which lie the lakes for which this district of England has long been celebrated. The largest of these are Ullswater, Thirlmere, Derwentwater, and

Bassenthwaite; but some of less size, as Buttermere, Crummockwater, Loweswater, Ennerdale, Wastwater, and Devoek Lake, are scarcely less admired. The vales or passes amongst the hills likewise contain much beautiful scenery of a wild character, although perhaps only traversed by a brawling mountain rill.

The combination of alpine wildness and grandeur, with the soft scenery which reposes in clothed slope and mirror-like lake at the bottoms of the hills, is what gives the Cumberland scenery its principal charm. Ullswater, which extends into Westmoreland, is thought to possess the greatest beauty: it is about nine miles in length, but nowhere more than one in breadth. Derwentwater, (often termed Keswick Lake, from its vicinity to the town of Keswick,) which measures three miles in length by one and a half in breadth, is only inferior to Ullswater. Mrs. Radcliffe, the eminent novelist, describes it as having peculiar charms, both from beauty and wildness. "The whole is seen at one glance, expanding within an amphitheatre of mountains, rocky but not vast, broken into many fantastic shapes. The precipices seldom overhang the water, but are ranged at some distance; and the shores swell with woody eminences, or sink into green pastoral margins. The bosom of the lake is spotted by several small but well-wooded islands."

Amongst the *passes*, that of Borrowdale is the most remarkable: it is a narrow chasm opening from the centre of the amphitheatre, which terminates the expanse of Derwentwater, and traversed by the vehement little stream of the same name. Near the entrance of the pass is a detached mountain called Castle-Crag, with a peaceful village reposing at its foot; and opposite to Castle-Crag is the *Bowderstone*, a huge mass of rock, which has apparently fallen from the neighboring cliffs, and round whose base the road is made to wind. It is computed that this enormous boulder is not less than 1,800 tons in weight.

The lake scenery of Cumberland has, by its beauty, attracted a great number of permanent residents, whose villas enter pleasingly into its landscapes, and amongst whom the present age has seen several eminent literary men—Southey, Wordsworth, &c. It also attracts an immense number of tourists from all parts of the kingdom.

The district usually called the *Lakes*, may be said also to comprehend a small northern, and nearly detached portion of Lancashire, where Windermere and Conistoun-Water are sheets rivalling in extent and beauty those of Cumberland.

The termination of the great northern range in the north of Derbyshire, presents in that district, a collection of rugged hills and narrow valleys, amidst which some of the most romantic scenery in England is to be found. A particular portion of it, near the village of Castleton, is termed the *Peak Scenery*, from a particular eminence or peak which attracts more than usual attention.

The *Peak* is approached through a rude and savage pass, named *Winyats*, (gates of the winds,) flanked with precipices 1,000 feet high. It is a limestone mountain, and perforated, as mountains of that kind of rock often are, with an immense cave. On the top are perched the remains of a castle, once the residence of a family descended from William Peveril, a natural son of the Conqueror. In the precipice below, above 600 feet from the top, is the entrance of the cave, a flattish Gothic arch, 120 feet wide, and 46 in height. Within this arch the cavern recedes about 90 feet. Here a company of twine-makers pursue their humble trade. At



the extremity of the first cave, which alone enjoys any of the light of day ; a low and narrow arch leads into a spacious opening, called "the Bell-House," whence a path leads to the "First Water." This is a lake 42 feet in breadth, passing below a massive arch of rocks, in some places not more than 20 inches above the surface of the water. Laying himself flat along the bottom of a small canoe, the visiter with his guide shoots through below the depending rocks into an opening 220 feet in length, 200 in breadth, and 121 in height. At the further extremity of this spacious cavern, the stream which flows along the bottom forms itself into what is called "the Second Water," near the end of which is a pile of rocks subjected to a perpetual copious dripping from the roof, and called "Roger Rain's House." Other passages and expansions succeed, till the cave ceases to be passable at the distance of 2,300 feet from the opening. On returning from his torch-lit adventure to the mouth of the cave, the visiter usually experiences a singular impression of novelty and delight from beholding again the surface of the daylight world.

The scenery adjacent to the neighboring town of Buxton is also much celebrated. One of the most noted objects is *Elden's Hole*, a perpendicular opening, down which a line has been dropped to the extent of 2,652 feet without finding the bottom. *Poole's Hole* is a cave remarkable for its magnificent stalactites. A succession of beautiful valleys, situated amidst rugged mountains, leads to the romantic one of *Matlock*, where the banks of the Derwent are bordered by extensive woods, interspersed with the boldest and most varied forms of rock. Of a wilder character is the celebrated *Dovedale*, where the River Dove traverses a pass of two miles in length, and of the most striking character. The sides of this short valley are chiefly composed of rocks of gray limestone, which, in their abrupt and towering ascent, assume innumerable fantastic forms—spires, pyramids, &c.—and are clothed with yew-trees, the mountain-ash, and numerous mosses and lichens.

The ISLE OF WIGHT, situated off the coast of Hampshire, and measuring twenty-three miles by about thirteen, is celebrated both for its mild climate and its beautiful scenery. From the high, open downs formed by a range of chalk-hills in the centre, some delightful views, mingling the bold objects of the coast line with the sail-studded English Channel, are obtained. The south shore is the most noted for its romantic objects, the most remarkable of which is at *Undercliff*. Here a great chalk cliff has at one time been presented to the sea ; but, afterwards undermined by the action of the waves, a large portion of it has fallen forward in vast fragments, leaving a new cliff at the distance of about half a mile from the shore. In the interval between the beach and the cliff, the fragments are scattered in confusion, many of them forming eminences of the most picturesque forms, while the intermediate spaces afford room for cottages and villas, and even at one place for a small rising town, nestling amidst the most beautiful shrubbery, natural and artificial. This district, when viewed from the sea, appears a series of gigantic steps, rising from the beach towards a great perpendicular wall. The cliff, in several places, opens in vast ravines, locally termed *chines*, which are usually clothed with a picturesque vegetation, and the most admired of which are those of Shanklin and Blackgang. NEWPORT, the capital, is situated in a beautiful valley in the interior, adjoining the picturesque old castle of Carisbrooke. At the western extremity of the island are the celebrated *Needles*, a cluster of chalk rocks rising like pillars above the waves. This is a favorite resort of the Queen.

Wales has already been described as a mountainous region, the chief peaks of which somewhat exceed 3,000 feet in height. It is visited by tourists from all parts, on account of the picturesque scenery with which it abounds, particularly in the northern district, or North Wales. Its hollows or vales contain none of those beautiful expanses of water which mix such softness with the grandeur of the Cambrian scenery, but are traversed by impetuous rivers and torrents, according with the precipitous and savage character of the landscape. The vales of North Wales are deeper and narrower than those of South Wales; these expand in many instances into broad plains, affording scope for the operations of the agriculturist, and for the building of towns and villages.

A range of hills, of which Snowdon is the highest, (3,570 feet,) traverses North Wales from south to north, terminating at Beaumaris Bay in the tremendous steep of Penmanmawr, whose hanging fragments threaten to bury him who travels by the difficult path which has been formed along its almost perpendicular sides. This hilly district comprehends a few turns, or mountain lakelets, full of delicious fish. The general bleakness is delightfully relieved by the intervening vales, the largest of which is that of Clywd, in Denbighshire, twenty miles long by about four or five in breadth, and presenting a brilliant picture of fertility. Among the lesser vales, the most famed for beauty is that of Llangollen, "where the Dee, winding through cultivated and pastoral scenes, presents at every step a varying landscape." Festiniog, in which a number of streams unite to form a river, amidst verdant and wooded scenes, is also celebrated by tourists.

Upon a hill north of Liskeard, the slopes of which are strewn with granite boulders, stands the curious pile called the Cheese-Wring, composed of five flat round pieces of the same rock, laid one above another, the largest towards the top, so that the whole forms a kind of inverted cone, to the height of fifteen feet. Dr. Macculloch, the eminent geologist, explains the formation of this strange object as solely owing to natural causes. Logging-stones, of which there are several in the same county, are in like manner explained. The largest is one situated upon a cliffy promontory near the Land's-End. It is a mass 17 feet in length, of irregular form, and believed to be about 90 tons in weight, resting by a slight protuberance upon the upper surface of the cliff, and so nicely poised, that a push from the hand, or even the force of the wind, causes it to vibrate. It appears that these logging-stones are simply prismatic masses of the rock, which have chanced to be left in their present situation after the adjoining masses of a similar character had been removed.

Perhaps the earliest objects of antiquity in England are the barrows or tumuli, with which the Britons, like so many other uncivilized nations, were accustomed to cover the remains of the dead. Several specimens of these still exist.

Druidical remains rank, perhaps, next in point of antiquity. The most simple of these are Cromlechs, of which an unusual number is found in the island of Anglesea, once the chief seat of the Druids, who were the priests of British heathenism. A cromlech consists of a large slab of stone, placed flatwise, or in a sloping position, upon two upright ones. It seems to have formed an altar for human sacrifices. Druidical circles are more complicated. They usually consist of circles of huge stones, placed on end, with, in some instances, connected lines or rows of similar stones, the whole forming objects at once rude and imposing. It is believed that they were the temples of the Druids. The most remarkable Druidical

circle is that of Abury, six miles from Marlborough, in Wiltshire. there is an outer circle, 1,400 feet in diameter, composed of stones generally about 16 feet in height, with a distance of 27 between every two. There are small concentric circles within the large one, and in the centre of all is a cromlech, or altar for human sacrifices, composed of one long flat stone, supported by two upright ones. Two straight avenues of approach, about a mile in length, were composed of similar blocks, and on the outside of the outermost circle there was a vallum or bank, the inner slope of which was, perhaps, a place for spectators. From the encroachments and carelessness of the neighboring inhabitants during a long course of ages, this curious relic of the British people is much dilapidated. Another Druidical circle of great note is that of Stonehenge, upon Salisbury Plain, a district also presenting many tumuli and other vestiges of the Britons. The Stonehenge temple, in its perfection, consisted of 140 stones, arranged in two concentric circles, the outermost 108 feet in diameter, with similar stones laid flatwise along the tops of the upright stones. The blocks which remain are from eighteen to twenty feet high, and about seven feet broad. Within the inner circle are two oval ranges, supposed to have formed the admytum or cell, and which consists of stones about thirty feet in height. The remains of this stupendous temple, ruined and shattered as they are, still produce a sensation of awe upon the mind of the beholder.

ROMAN REMAINS are now rare and nearly obliterated. The roads formed by this people have in some instances been changed into our present comparatively broad and well-formed ways; in other cases, slight traces of their original pavement, which generally consisted of large stones forming a causeway, are to be found. Between Newcastle and Carlisle are the remains of the two walls built respectively by the Emperors Adrian and Severus, in 120 and 210, to keep out the northern barbarians: the first being a high mound of earth, and the second a rampart of stone, 68½ miles long, running parallel to the first, on the outside. Remains of Roman camps, bridges, villas, baths, &c., also exist in various parts of England. All the towns, the names of which terminate in *chester* or *caster*, are considered as having been originally Roman stations. Near St. Albans are the remains of the walls which once surrounded the Roman town of *Verulamium*, the site of the town itself having long been subjected to the plough.

Several of the small churches built soon after the introduction of Christianity still exist, and continue to be used as parish churches. The larger churches connected with monastic establishments, and the cathedrals, which were the seats of bishops, took their rise at a later period, chiefly during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. This was a time when an enthusiasm existed for founding and endowing monasteries and churches. To it owe their origin many superb minsters, the solemn beauty of which continues to be a proud possession of the land. Westminster Abbey, York Minster, and the cathedrals of Winchester, Lincoln, Gloucester, Canterbury, Litchfield, and Salisbury, may be instanced as particularly august specimens of the Gothic style in which all ecclesiastical structures were then built. There are also many ruinous remains of the great abbacies of the middle ages; those of Tintern, near Monmouth; Glastonbury, near Wells; and Bury St. Edmunds, are of famed beauty. A kindred class of antique structures exist in what are called *crosses*, which consist generally of an elegant tapering Gothic erection, with a small shrine below, and were in most instances erected to hallow the spot on which the remains of venerated persons rested on their way to the tomb.

Of the huge castles built by the Norman nobility and by the sovereigns during the first few centuries after the conquest, many specimens still exist, but few which are not in ruins. The Tower of London, built by the Conqueror himself, is an entire and most superb example of this class of structures. Conway and Caernarvon Castles, which, with many others, were raised to overawe the then independent principality of Wales, are also noble specimens. Others may be found in the north, as Lancaster, Carlisle, Newcastle, and Rugby castles. They usually consist of a great square tower, with ranges of lesser towers, and the whole surrounded by thick and lofty walls, beneath which there was generally a moat or wet ditch. Dover Castle, placed on the top of a lofty cliff overlooking the English Channel, and still kept in good order, is a peculiarly interesting specimen of the Norman fortress.

England abounds in mansions in various styles, the seats of her nobility and gentry. Some of these reach a high degree of splendor, both in architecture and internal furnishing, not to speak of the delightful sylvan domains by which they are generally surrounded.

A certain class of English mansions may be described as engrafted upon the fortresses of the middle ages, or upon the priories and abbeys disused at the Reformation. *Warwick Castle*, the seat of the Earl of Warwick, situated upon a rock forty feet above the river Avon, and *Alwicks Castle*, in Northumberland, the seat of the Duke of Northumberland, are splendid examples of the first class of edifices. The area of the latter building "is divided into three courts, entered through gateways formed in lofty towers. The keep, or citadel, is of vast magnitude, and acquires some peculiar points of architectural beauty from 'fair semi-circular towers,' which protect and adorn it on every side." *Newstead Abbey*, in Nottinghamshire, the seat of the late Lord Byron and of his ancestors, may be instanced as a beautiful and impressive example of the domestic mansion founded upon the remains of a monastic building.

There is a class of old mansions which appear to be peculiar to England, and are usually called *Halls*. They date in many instances from the sixteenth century, and may be supposed to have been the favorite form of domestic architecture in the days of the first Tudors. *Haddon Hall*, near Derby, belonging to the Duke of Rutland, is an unusually handsome specimen of the class. They generally present a front, of irregular form, advancing into prominent bows with many windows, and constructed of brick upon a fantastically shaped framework of timber, the exterior of which is left exposed and painted. A variety of angular projections break the line of the roof, and give occasion to much carved wood-work. In the interior there is always a goodly hall of oak, with a diced floor, a huge set of oaken tables, and a spacious fire-place. Mr. Nash has published a beautiful work, containing views and descriptions of the most remarkable of these charming old mansions, so rich in old-world associations.

Another large class of English mansions are of a style which prevailed in the seventeenth century, and which comprehends many substantial as well as decorative features. Elegant fronts of polished stone, with traces of turreting, ornamented square windows, and tall angular chimney-stalks, strike an untechnical spectator as the principal features of this style, usually called Elizabethan. *Holland House*, Kensington, and *Theobalds*, the seat of the celebrated Secretary Cecil, present apt examples.

The houses built in the last century were chiefly in the Grecian style, more or less pure. Some of the productions of Mr. Adam present beauti-

ful examples—for instance, *Keddlestone House*, the residence of Lord Scarsdale, near Derby, the front of which is a line of 360 feet, comprehending a central and two lateral masses connected by low corridors, and universally admired for its classic purity and grace. *Chatsworth*, the seat of the Duke of Devonshire, also near Derby, is another magnificent mansion of this class.

Within the last fifty years, houses have been built in various styles, imitative of modes long ago fashionable. The castellated, the Elizabethan, and the Grecian, have all had their admirers. It is also common now-a-days to build houses from the foundation in the manner of those Gothic priories and abbeys which were originally designed for purposes so different.

*Eaton Hall*, the seat of the Marquis of Westminster, situated near Chester, may be considered as a prime example of the modern Gothic. It comprises, besides other apartments, an entrance hall, paved with variegated marbles, a music-gallery, adorned with two fine pictures by West, a saloon, decorated with some beautiful specimens of stained glass, and a library. This magnificent mansion is much visited by strangers on account of its architectural beauty, its splendid furniture, and the vast number of interesting objects contained in it. It cost the enormous sum of £1,000,000 sterling.

Having pointed out some of the chief physical peculiarities of England, we will now proceed to speak of the English people. At the period of the Roman invasion England was possessed by various aboriginal tribes, supposed by some to have been Celts, and by others a mixture of the Celtic and Gothic races. Their descendants still form the chief bulk of the people of Wales and Cornwall, but their language is extinct, except among the Welch. The south-east at that period was occupied by the Belgæ, a branch of the Teutonic family, from Gaul, which had dispossessed the natives and driven them into the interior. After the downfall of the Roman power, the south-east and midland districts were subdued by the Jutes and Saxons; and Norfolk and Suffolk by the Angles, while the north was over-run, sometimes possessed, and largely colonized by the Danes—all kindred families of the Gothic or Teutonic race. The Normans subdued England in the 11th century, and subsequently commingling with the Jutes, Danes and Angles, formed the present intermixture, the modern English and the English language. For a long period, and until lately, however, the people of each county had a dialect peculiar to themselves, but by the diffusion of education, intercommunion, and other causes, the mother tongue has become more uniform, and one language, with slight deflections only, is now spoken in every part. The groundwork of the English language is Saxon, with a large addition from the Greek, Latin and French. In short, the modern English are of very mixed origin, and their language, from that circumstance, contains probably a greater number of different elements than any other of the modern tongues, and the large influx of the Irish into the manufacturing districts is still operating strongly on the form of a language already so polynational.

The amount of the population of England and Wales prior to the year 1801 cannot be ascertained with any degree of certainty. McCulloch conjectures that at the era of the conquest it amounted to about 2,150,000; Mr. Chalmers estimates its amount in 1377 at 2,350,000, and the celebrated political arithmetician, Gregory King, in 1696, states it at 5,500,000. Since 1801 a decennial census has been taken. The following table exhibits the

gradual progress of the population from 1700 to 1801, as computed by Howell and Finlaison respectively :

	Howell.	Finlaison.
1700.....	5,475,000.....	5,134,516.....
1710.....	5,240,000.....	5,066,337.....
1720.....	5,565,000.....	5,345,351.....
1730.....	5,796,000.....	5,687,993.....
1740.....	6,064,000.....	5,829,705.....
1750.....	6,467,000.....	6,039,684.....
1760.....	6,736,000.....	6,479,730.....
1770.....	7,428,000.....	7,227,586.....
1780.....	7,953,000.....	7,841,827.....
1790.....	8,675,000.....	8,540,738.....

The enumerations taken since the last period are certain, and appear in the annexed tabular view :

	England.	Wales.	Army and Navy.	Total.	INCREASE.	
					Numerical.	Per cent.
1801.....	8,331,434.....	541,546.....	470,598.....	9,343,578.....	—	—
1811.....	9,538,827.....	611,788.....	640,500.....	10,791,115.....	1,447,537.....	—15.4
1821.....	11,261,437.....	717,438.....	319,300.....	12,298,175.....	1,507,060.....	—13.9
1831.....	13,091,005.....	806,182.....	277,017.....	14,174,204.....	1,876,029.....	—15.2
1841.....	15,173,164.....	911,241.....	".....	16,084,405.....	1,910,201.....	—13.4

The following table shows the relative proportion of sexes, according to the census of 1841 :

	Males.	Females.	Total.
England.....	7,321,875.....	7,673,633.....	14,995,508.....
Wales.....	447,553.....	463,788.....	911,241.....
Islands &c.....	—.....	—.....	177,656.....
Total.....	7,769,428.....	8,137,321.....	16,084,405.....

Our notices regarding the distribution of the population, and the division of occupations among the people, must necessarily be brief. About one-third the total resides in towns having a population of 10,000 and upwards ; and as the increase of this class is rapidly progressing, and in a greater ratio than the population of the rural districts, it indicates a corresponding preponderance in manufacturing industry. The occupations of the people are shown in the annexed, constructed by Mr. Marshall, which states the population of the districts devoted to the several branches of British production :

	1821.	1831.	INCREASE. per cent.
Mining Districts.....	1,028,078.....	1,339,856.....	31
Manufacturing Districts.....	2,378,363.....	2,984,101.....	25.5
Metropolitan and City Districts.....	2,904,266.....	3,463,238.....	19
Inland towns and Agricultural Districts.....	5,668,166.....	6,102,430.....	7.3

England and Wales is divided into 52 counties, of which England proper contains 40, and Wales 12. The general statistics of these will be seen in the adjoined results of the census of 1841 :

NOTE.—The aggregate results of the census of Great Britain, in 1851, were as follows :

	Males.	Females.	Total.
England and Wales.....	8,754,554.....	9,151,277.....	17,905,831.....
Scotland.....	1,363,622.....	1,507,162.....	2,870,784.....
Islands in British Seas.....	66,511.....	76,405.....	142,916.....
Total Great Britain.....	10,184,687.....	10,734,844.....	20,919,531.....

## STATISTICS OF THE ENGLISH COUNTIES.\*

COUNTIES.	Area in square miles.	PERSONS.			Population to square mile.	HOUSES.			Persons to each inhabit'd house.	COUNTY SEATS.	
		Males.	Females.	Totals.		Inhabit- ed.	Uninhab- ited.	Building		Names.	Thous'ds of Pop.
Bedford.....	463	52,169	55,768	107,937	233	21,235	521	211	5.08	Bedford.....	8
Berks.....	752	79,674	80,552	160,226	213	31,472	1,566	200	5.09	Reading.....	18
Buckingham.....	738	76,316	79,673	155,989	211	31,071	1,157	198	5.02	Buckingham.....	7
Cambridge.....	857	81,513	82,996	164,509	192	33,112	1,218	237	4.96	Cambridge.....	23
Chester.....	1052	193,089	202,211	395,300	376	73,390	5,845	523	5.38	Chester.....	22
Cornwall.....	1330	164,451	176,818	341,269	256	65,641	4,956	922	5.19	Launceston.....	6
Cumberland.....	1523	86,206	91,706	177,912	117	34,444	2,369	199	5.16	Carlisle.....	20
Derby.....	1028	135,639	136,563	272,202	265	52,910	2,484	444	5.14	Derby.....	32
Devon.....	2585	252,752	280,979	533,731	206	94,637	6,117	893	5.63	Exeter.....	37
Dorset.....	1006	83,442	91,301	174,743	174	34,559	2,012	291	5.05	Dorchester.....	5
Durham.....	1097	159,874	164,403	324,277	295	57,450	3,272	554	5.64	Durham.....	9
Essex.....	1533	172,299	172,696	344,995	225	67,602	2,422	507	5.10	Colchester.....	17
Gloucester.....	1258	205,374	225,933	431,307	343	80,856	5,790	786	5.33	Gloucester.....	14
Hereford.....	863	57,257	57,181	114,438	132	23,461	1,428	123	4.87	Hereford.....	11
Hertford.....	630	77,619	79,618	157,237	249	30,155	1,305	185	5.21	Hertford.....	5
Huntingdon.....	372	29,154	29,545	58,699	158	11,897	373	65	4.93	Huntingdon.....	5
Kent.....	1557	272,415	275,746	548,161	352	95,547	5,013	809	5.73	Canterbury.....	15
Lancaster.....	1766	814,857	852,207	1,667,064	944	289,166	23,604	3832	5.76	Lancaster.....	14
Leicester.....	806	105,613	110,242	215,855	267	44,649	3,260	457	4.78	Leicester.....	50
Lincoln.....	2611	181,802	180,915	362,717	138	73,038	2,350	456	4.96	Lincoln.....	13
Middlesex.....	282	738,970	837,646	1,576,616	5591	207,670	9,850	3156	7.58	LONDON.....	1873
Monmouth.....	496	70,608	63,741	134,349	271	24,880	1,417	235	5.39	Monmouth.....	5
Norfolk.....	2024	199,055	213,566	412,621	203	85,922	3,711	450	4.81	Norwich.....	60
Northampton.....	1016	98,886	100,175	199,061	195	40,903	1,674	295	4.86	Northampton.....	20
Northumberland.....	1871	121,371	128,997	250,368	134	48,704	3,031	442	5.13	Newcastle.....	69
Nottingham.....	837	121,660	128,113	249,773	297	50,541	2,749	216	4.94	Nottingham.....	51
Oxford.....	756	80,383	81,190	161,573	214	32,141	1,440	201	5.02	Oxford.....	20
Rutland.....	149	10,743	10,597	21,340	143	4,297	120	31	4.96	Oakham.....	20
Salop or Shropshire.....	1343	119,357	119,657	239,014	177	47,203	2,093	298	2.06	Shrewsbury.....	17
Somerset.....	1645	209,421	226,581	436,002	265	81,632	4,702	863	5.34	Taunton.....	12
Southampton or Hampshire.....	1625	174,724	180,216	354,940	218	66,589	3,274	505	5.33	Winchester.....	9
Stafford.....	1184	258,729	251,477	510,206	431	97,676	5,455	899	5.22	Stafford.....	9
Suffolk.....	1515	154,107	161,022	315,129	208	64,081	2,317	577	4.92	Ipswich.....	24
Surrey.....	759	278,186	304,427	582,613	767	95,375	3,948	1210	6.12	Guildford.....	5
Sussex.....	1466	147,572	152,198	299,770	204	54,066	3,647	253	5.54	Lewes.....	9
Warwick.....	897	195,967	206,154	402,121	448	81,445	6,899	667	4.95	Warwick.....	9
Westmoreland.....	762	28,234	28,235	56,469	74	10,818	870	40	5.22	Appleby.....	1
Wilts.....	1367	128,904	131,103	260,007	180	50,986	2,149	255	5.54	Salisbury.....	11
Worcester.....	723	114,753	118,731	233,484	323	46,962	2,922	351	4.95	Worcester.....	26
York, East Riding.....	1280	95,446	98,230	193,676	151	38,390	1,675	426	5.22	Beverley.....	8
York, N. Riding.....	2070	18,176	20,146	38,322	117	7,710	268	68	4.97	York.....	30
York, West Riding.....	2611	574,527	580,397	1,154,924	442	226,473	18,870	2221	5.11	Wakefield.....	18

## STATISTICS OF THE WELSH COUNTIES.

COUNTIES.	Area in square miles.	PERSONS.			Population to square mile.	HOUSES.			Persons to each inhabit'd house.	COUNTY SEATS.	
		Males.	Females.	Totals.		Inhabit- ed.	Uninhab- ited.	Building		Names.	Thous'ds of Pop.
Anglesea.....	271	24,369	26,521	50,890	187	11,488	746	135	4.42	Beaumaris.....	12
Brecon.....	754	26,911	26,384	53,295	71	10,634	833	77	5.03	Brecknock.....	5
Cardigan.....	675	31,997	36,383	68,380	101	15,102	811	125	4.53	Cardigan.....	3
Caernarthen.....	974	50,795	55,687	106,482	108	23,407	1,382	225	4.60	Caernarthen.....	7
Caernarvon.....	544	39,600	41,468	81,068	149	16,869	771	134	4.82	Caernarvon.....	9
Denbigh.....	633	44,617	44,674	89,291	141	18,485	991	167	4.82	Denbigh.....	5
Flint.....	244	33,636	32,911	66,547	272	13,320	446	101	5.00	Flint.....	2
Glamorgan.....	792	89,028	84,434	173,462	219	33,205	1,466	538	5.24	Cardiff.....	9
Merioneth.....	663	19,247	19,991	39,238	59	8,467	547	72	4.66	Dolgelly.....	4
Montgomery.....	839	34,252	34,968	69,220	82	13,650	884	33	5.08	Montgomery.....	1
Pembroke.....	610	40,343	47,919	88,262	144	18,822	1,022	143	4.69	Pembroke.....	4
Radnor.....	426	12,738	12,448	25,186	59	4,687	234	19	5.47	New Radnor.....	7

\* The following are omitted in the tables:—

Town of Berwick on Tweed.....	area	9 sq. m.	pop.	8,484
Isle of Wight.....	"	136 "	"	42,550
Channel Islands.....	"	130 "	"	76,065
Isle of Man.....	"	250 "	"	47,975
Scilly Islands.....	"	9 "	"	2,582

It has already been seen that a large part of the people of England are collected in towns and cities. Some may be classed under the heads of manufacturing and commercial towns, while others are university towns, naval stations, cathedral towns, or towns of summer recreation, or the residences of persons in independent circumstances. The cities and towns of England are in great number, and though often of plain exterior, include immense wealth. The prevalence of brick in domestic buildings, and of the smoke arising from coal fires, gives them a peculiarly sombre character. In all, however, there are numerous churches, and in some there are streets altogether built of stone, and very cleanly.

LONDON, the British metropolis, is a world within itself. It is situated in the counties of Middlesex, Kent, and Surrey, on the banks of the Thames, 60 miles from the sea. The larger portion of the city is built on the north side of the river, and rises in a gentle slope from the water's edge. Its outline is exceedingly irregular, and it is difficult to determine its exact extent. It is usually said to include all the buildings in a radius of four miles around St. Paul's Cathedral. The area cannot be less than 20 to 25 square miles. It must be borne in mind, however, that London is not one city only, but consists of eight distinct cities and boroughs, with extensive suburban villages and hamlets. The cities are London proper and Westminster, and the boroughs Marylebone, Finsbury, Tower Hamlets, Southwark, Lambeth and Greenwich; the five first being in Middlesex, the two next in Surrey, and the last in Kent. This immense city contains an aggregate population of at least 2,000,000; having had, in 1841, 1,873,676, and has about 10,000 streets, lanes, terraces, &c.; 80 squares, 24 market-places, and nearly 200,000 houses. The streets are for the most part wide, but there are also many which scarcely admit of the passage of carriages. The finest streets are those in Westminster and Marylebone, where the aristocracy reside. This portion of the city is known as the "West-End," and contains the Royal Palaces, the seats of the executive and legislative governments, the parks, and in general the most splendid buildings. The city proper, &c., are known as the "East-End," which comprehends the most populous portions of Tower Hamlets. The foreign merchants are chiefly quartered in this portion of the city, and considerable manufactures are carried on, especially in silk-weaving and sugar-refining. It also contains the extensive docks and warehouses at Blackwall, belonging to the East India Company; those connected with the West India trade at Poplar; the London Docks, at Wapping, and St. Catharine's Docks, near the Tower. Southwark and Lambeth contain some extensive iron foundries, breweries, and many other important manufacturing establishments, especially those of patent shot, plate-glass, &c.; and at Bermondsey, leather and parchment are made to a large amount. The latest additions have been made on the north and north-west, in St. Pancras, Finsbury, &c. The houses built here are of brick, chiefly supplied on the spot, and are generally faced with stucco. Few houses are of more than three stories, and whole streets are built of uniform design. It has been remarked that there are few public buildings and monuments in London at all worthy of its extent and wealth; still among the number it contains, there are edifices of every variety of style, character and size, and structures adapted to every purpose of national and municipal government, law, religion, education, charity, science, art, amusement, and trade; but the mere enumeration of their names would occupy one-fourth of the present volume. Our descrip-



tion, therefore, must necessarily be limited to a few of the more prominent, and the more celebrated of those structures.

The CATHEDRAL CHURCH OF ST. PAUL, in the City, claims our first attention, as being at once the most prominent and the most interesting object. The spot on which the present building stands has been occupied for many centuries by churches of the same name, the last of which was destroyed by the great fire of 1666. The first stone of the present building was laid by Sir Christopher Wren in 1675 and the last in 1710, but the whole decorations were not finished until 1723. The church is in the Roman style of architecture, built in the form of a cross, with a large dome in the centre. It is 500 feet in length, 180 in breadth, and the height to the top of the cross which surmounts the dome, is 340 feet. The whole building is of Portland stone, now very much discolored with smoke, and long exposure to the weather. The interior is very plain; but of late years the dull monotony of its appearance has been to a considerable extent relieved by a number of monuments, erected to the memory of England's worthies. The CHURCH OF ST. PETER, commonly called "Westminster Abbey," though not so prominent an object as St. Paul's, is of not less distinguished fame. It is likewise in the form of a cross, but without a dome or central tower; and the tameness of its exterior aspect is but little relieved by two modern towers at its west end. The whole building is in the Norman and Gothic styles, and some parts of it are of great antiquity. The interior is crowded with monuments of the illustrious dead; and it is here that the ceremony of the coronation of the kings and queens of England is performed. The other churches of the metropolis are generally small in proportions, and few can boast of a high order of architecture. Henry VII.'s Chapel, however, is a splendid structure, and an exception to our remarks. One hundred new churches have been erected within a few years by the Church Extension Society. Adjoining the Abbey is WESTMINSTER HALL, the only remaining part of the palace commenced by king William Rufus. It measures 276 feet in length by 100 in breadth, and is covered with an elegant roof formed of oak. It has long been occupied by the supreme court, and now forms the entrance hall of the magnificent building erected for the accommodation of the Imperial Parliament, a building second to none in Europe. With regard to the latter, the present writer can say, from ocular demonstration, that it is the most magnificent building in Christendom, and a glorious monument of British genius. Both in exterior and interior decorations, statuary, and the symmetry in all its parts, it is perfect. In the same neighborhood is WHITEHALL, a small portion of a palace commenced by king James I. The design was furnished by Inigo Jones, and the ceiling was painted by Rubens; it is now occupied as a military chapel.

The royal palace of Pimlico or BUCKINGHAM HOUSE, a modern stone building; and ST. JAMES'S, an ancient, irregular, and gloomy structure of brick, are also situated in Westminster. To these may be added SOMERSET HOUSE, a large pile of buildings occupied by various public boards, and by King's College; the national gallery; the British Museum; University College; Drury Lane and Covent Garden theatres; the Temple and Lincoln's Inn, for students at law; and many other large and costly structures—more remarkable, however, for their extent and utility, than for their architectural elegance.

On the east side of London is the TOWER, an ancient fortress of little importance as a military defence, but of great historical interest. It derives its name from a lofty square tower or keep in the centre, erected by William

the Conqueror, to overawe the citizens of London, and consists of a number of buildings irregularly piled together, and surrounded by a wall and ditch. The Tower is now used principally as an arsenal or military storehouse, and occasionally as a state prison. Here the crown jewels are deposited, and also a portion of the public records of the kingdom. A considerable portion of the minor buildings was destroyed by fire in 1841, by which misfortune many mementoes of the past were forever obliterated. The BANK OF ENGLAND has likewise an irregular mass of buildings, in the heart of the city, completely isolated and surrounded by a high wall, which is in some parts ornamented with architectural designs. On the opposite side of the street is the ROYAL EXCHANGE, a most magnificent structure on the site of the old exchange, which was destroyed Jan'y. 11th, 1838. This is a building worthy of the commercial metropolis of the world, and a fit place for the meeting of the merchant princes of England. Not far from these is GUILD-HALL, a large building devoted to public meetings and great festivals of the citizens of London; and the MANSION HOUSE, the official residence of the Lord Mayor. The various halls appropriated to the service of the various guilds of the city, are magnificent buildings. The most noted of these are the GOLDSMITH'S HALL, and the FISHMONGER'S HALL. Among the hospitals, those of ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S, in Smithfield, and ST. THOMAS' and GUY'S, in Southwark, are the most ancient and celebrated. The other principal edifices are the CHRIST'S CHURCH HOSPITAL, a splendid educational institute; the various prisons, as NEWGATE, CLERKENWELL, &c.; the CUSTOM-HOUSE, &c., &c. The great fire which destroyed nearly the whole of London, in 1666, is commemorated by a pillar called the MONUMENT, 202 feet in height, which stands near by London Bridge, and 202 feet from the spot where the fire is said to have commenced.

To whatever extent London is deficient in national buildings, it is superior to all others for its accommodations and means of supplying all the wants and luxuries of life. Its noble squares, its clean and well regulated thoroughfares, the brilliant lights which convert night into day, together with the amazing number of shops and the costly merchandize therein displayed, are objects of interest to every visiter, and especially to foreigners. Nowhere else in the world are undertakings conducted on an equal scale of magnificence. Sewers, which rival at least in point of extent the celebrated constructions of the same nature at Rome, are the means of keeping the streets free from impurities. The strict police system of the metropolis is also a matter of no little moment. Water, that important necessary of life, is supplied by eight different incorporated companies, in quantity, which, according to a statement laid before parliament, was sufficient to meet a yearly consumption of 228,914,761 hogsheads, the average daily supply being at the rate of 100 gallons to each house. The lighting of the metropolis is effected by several coal gas companies. The length of gas-pipes laid is estimated at 450 miles, and the gas is conveyed through these into 7 or 8,000 streets.

The bridges which span the Thames are among the most magnificent in the world, and celebrated for their substantial strength. Three of these: namely—London Bridge, rebuilt and opened in 1831; Southwark Bridge, completed in 1819, and Blackfriar's Bridge, open since 1769, afford the means of communication between the city and borough of Southwark. Higher up the river, Waterloo Bridge, opened in 1817, Westminster Bridge, (1750), and Vauxhall Bridge (1816), connect the districts of Westminster and Lambeth. London, Waterloo, Blackfriars and Westminster

ster bridges are built of stone, and those of Southwark and Vauxhall of iron, but in both, the metallic arches rest on piers and abutments of masonry. These bridges vary in length from 1,242 (Waterloo) to 708 (Southwark,) in breadth of roadway from 53 feet (London) to 36 feet (Vauxhall,) and in the span of the principal arches from 240 feet (Southwark), and 152 feet (London) to 76 feet (Blackfriar's.) In addition to these communications, the Thames Tunnel, a sub-aqueous passage beneath the bed of the Thames, was commenced at Rotherhithe in 1825, and after many interruptions from irruptions of the super-jacent waters, was completed in 1843. This is one of the most wonderful structures in the world, and, as a commercial avenue between London and Southwark, very advantageous. These are but a few of the great enterprises of the citizens, but will serve to exhibit the spirit of improvement that animates them in all that is useful and ornamental.

The splendid parks of London are truly the lungs of the metropolis. Their importance as places of recreation and pleasure is eclipsed only by the healthiness with which they invest the largest city of Europe. These are St. James's Park, Hyde Park, Regent's Park, &c., in the West End, and Victoria Park, in the eastern suburbs. Regent's Park is surrounded by magnificent buildings, and contains the Gardens of the Zoological Society, whose collection of animals is one of the most interesting and attractive objects of public curiosity. Hyde Park is the largest, and is continuous with Kensington Gardens, a large enclosure connected with the royal palace. The Serpentine river, so often mentioned as a resort of the youth of London for skating in winter, is a large oblong pond, partly in Kensington Gardens and partly in Hyde Park. These parts are highly adorned with ornamental woods, and contain several statues of British heroes and statesmen.

London contains about one-eighth of the whole population of England and Wales. No city in the world, leaving out the populous cities of China, exceed this amount; and even Rome in her palmiest days cannot be said to have surpassed the British metropolis in this respect. We have no means of ascertaining the consumption of food by this mass of people, but it must be immense, and constant; the demand gives rise to several trades, the supply is in general abundant, and the prices of provision reasonably cheap. The comparative values of provisions in New-York and London are about equivalent; but on account of the cheapness of house-rent and fuel, living in London is more economical.

The City of London is governed by a corporation styled the Lord-mayor, Aldermen and Citizens of London. It consists of 26 aldermen, who fill the office of Lord-mayor by turns, from year to year, two sheriffs, a recorder, a town-clerk and a common council of representatives, elected by the livery or freemen of the city. The citizens are distributed into twelve companies, some of which are very wealthy, and, as before remarked, possess splendid halls. These pertain to the city proper. The municipal officers of Westminster are a High Steward and High Bailiff, both appointed by the Dean and Chapter of the Abbey. The other parts of the metropolis have no municipal authorities, but are under the jurisdiction of the magistrates of the counties to which they respectively belong. The new police, under the control of the State Department, have a universal surveillance over the public peace, and stipendiary magistrates arbitrate primarily in all cases of injury to persons and property, and in nuisance cases. The military garrison of London, chiefly employed as guards to the public

offices, consists of several regiments of foot and horse guards, stationed in the Westminster and Regent's Park and in the Tower.

London returns twenty members to parliament, and it is also the see of a bishop, who ranks next in dignity to the arch-bishops.

We may now take a summary view of the institutions devoted to the people's education. London contains a University, erected in 1836 by Royal Letters Patent, for conducting examinations in literature, science and art, and conferring academical degrees. It is governed by a senate, consisting of a chancellor, vice-chancellor and a body of fellows; the chancellors and fellows being appointed by the Crown, and the vice-chancellor elected annually by the members of the senate. Connected with the University are two colleges, named University College and King's College—the one open to students of all religious creeds, and the latter open only to those of the established religion. The great public schools in which classical learning is taught, are St. Paul's School, founded in 1510; Westminster School, in 1590; Christ's Hospital or the Blue Coat School, in 1552; the Charterhouse (Chartreux) School, in 1611; Merchant Tailor's School, in 1561; and the Mercer's Company's School, 1534. There are also in London sixteen schools of medicine; as many of law, and five of theology; four patent, and thirteen or fourteen minor theatres, with a large number of pseudo-theatrical exhibitions; a botanical garden, (at Chelsea;) a horticultural garden, (at Turnham Green;) two zoological gardens; besides many private establishments devoted to similar objects. The number of scientific, professional and literary societies exceed one hundred, of which, about twenty are chartered. The institutions connected with benevolent objects amount to several hundreds, upwards of one hundred and thirty affording medical aid to the afflicted and sick. Some of these are unparalleled in the extent of their operations, and the large amount of funds voluntarily subscribed by their members. The amount received for missionary and religious purposes alone, annually exceeds half a million sterling.

London manufactures every article of virtu and use. It is the centre of industry, as it is of commerce, and the sciences. To give an idea of the immense operations carried on within and without the city in this line would require volumes. A glance at the London directory will give a better illustration of this subject than we are able to effect in the small space allotted to our descriptions. We may state, however, the approximate numbers engaged in some of the leading trades. There are about 16,000 tailors, 50,000 engaged in printing, bindery and other press and book-work; 20,000 shoemakers; 7000 bakers; 8000 butchers; 15,000 carpenters; 6000 cabinet-makers; 6000 publicans; 2000 upholsterers; 3000 plumbers and glaziers; 6000 brick-layers; 5000 house-painters; 5000 blacksmiths; 2000 white-smiths; 2000 plasterers, and about 2500 stone-masons. But it would be endless to name the artizans in the several branches,—all are there, different only in number and the amount of production.

London, in reference to the extent and activity of its commerce, stands without a rival; and if we bring it into comparison, not only with the principal trading cities of the world, but even with some of the states that are most distinguished for commercial activity, we shall find the result of our enquiries calculated to excite, in a high degree, feelings of astonishment. In reference to the foreign trade of London, indeed, it may safely be affirmed that at present it exceeds not only that of every other city of the world, but even the entire foreign trade of all countries, except France and the United States.

The vast superiority of London as a trading place is sufficiently proved by a concurrence of circumstances and facts. Previous to the reduction of the postage on letters, London supplied one-third the post-office revenue, a sufficient indication of the business that could require such a correspondence. A knowledge of the inland and coasting trade of London can only be arrived at by approximate calculations. The probable value of merchandize transferred yearly by the trade of London, may be estimated at £300,000,000 sterling.

The Thames itself forms the **PORT OF LONDON**; and for several miles below the city the river is constantly crowded with vessels from every part of the world, the masts of which present the appearance of an interminable forest. The limits of the port, however, are London bridge and Deptford. The upper portion, extending from London bridge to Limehouse, is divided into the upper, middle and lower pools, below which, as far as Deptford, and Greenwich, are two divisions, named Limehouse Reach and Greenwich Reach. Further down the river, Blackwall, Rugsby, Woolwich, Gallions, and Barking Reaches occur in succession. The celebrated docks connected with the port and trade of London have been noticed in a former page. These great works are built on an extensive scale, and together with their vast warehouses are the wonder of the world. The tobacco warehouse belonging to the London Docks covers an area of five acres, and the underground vaults, which are  $18\frac{1}{4}$  acres in extent, afford stowage for 60,000 pipes of wine.

In short, London is the grand centre of the commerce of the world, and a place to which the traders and money-dealers of all nations resort. In respect of wealth it has no rival, and we seek in vain for any city of the ancient world which may be put in comparison with it.

The chief places of an interesting kind near London are Woolwich, Greenwich, and Deptford, on the east; Dulwich on the south; and Chelsea, Richmond, Hampton Court, and Windsor, on the south-west.

**WOOLWICH** is a village in Kent, on the south bank of the Thames, eight miles from London by land, and ten, following the course of the river. Here, in the reign of Henry VIII., a dockyard for the construction of vessels of the royal navy was established; and, ever since, the place has been distinguished as an arsenal for naval and military stores. From the river a view is obtained of the dockyard and arsenal, now greatly improved. The ground, for nearly a mile in length, is bounded by a stone quay, and surrounded on the land side with various storehouses and workshops. Among these is included a laboratory for the preparation of cartridges, bombs, grenades, and shot. Adjoining are barracks for artillery and marines, military hospitals, &c.; on the upper part of Woolwich Common is situated a royal military academy for the education of young men designed for the army. About two miles farther up the Thames, at the head of the reach, is **BLACKWALL**, on the north bank, with its noble quay for steam-ships. The river now bends sharply to the south, and again returning northwards, encloses like a peninsula, on the north side, a large flat piece of marshy ground, called the **ISLE OF DOGS**. At the southern extremity of this bend of the river stands Greenwich.

**GREENWICH** is a small town, lying on the south bank of the Thames, about six miles below London Bridge, following the windings of the rivers, but only about four miles by land. As a town, Greenwich is of no moment; its hospital and parks are the only objects of attention. Toward

the eastern extremity stands the hospital, which faces the Thames, and has a perfect command of all that passes on the river. This superb hospital consists of four edifices, unconnected with each other, but apparently forming an entire structure, lining three sides of an open square, that side on which there is no building being next the water. The whole is built of fine stone, in the best possible style; and along nearly the greater part are lofty colonnades, with handsome pillars, and covered overhead, to protect those underneath from the weather. The square interval in the centre, which is 273 feet wide, is paved also with smooth stone, and ornamented in the middle with a statue of George II., by Rysbrach. Beyond the edifices, on the south, rises the splendid park of Greenwich, dotted with luxuriant tall trees, and crowned at the top with the Royal Observatory buildings.

A portion of these beautiful buildings was originally a palace of Queen Elizabeth, since whose time various renovations and additions have been made, but chiefly in the reign of William and Mary, who, in the year 1694, here established an hospital for invalid seamen, to which purpose the buildings are still exclusively devoted. This building contains generally about 3,000 pensioners, 168 nurses, with a variety of officers for the government of the house; and gives support to 32,000 out-pensioners. The institution is supported by a payment of sixpence per month from every sailor in the royal navy, by certain dues and donations, and other means. The number of individuals who reside within the walls is nearly 3,500. The inmates have a strikingly antique air. They are all old sailors, with countenances well-browned by tropical suns, and by the tempests of the ocean; some hobbling on a wooden leg, others with an empty sleeve, a few with only one eye. Their clothes are all of a dark blue color, of an antiquated fashion. A number wear cocked hats, which add greatly to their supposed antiquity; the boatswains, or other warrant officers, are allowed a yellow trimming or lace to their garments. An abundance of food is allowed, the clothing is warm and comfortable, the accommodations in the house are good, and each man, according to his rank, has from a shilling to half a crown a week, as an allowance for pocket-money.

The chief attraction of the establishment is the painted hall, which is in the west wing. It consists of a great room, and one smaller, but equally lofty, leading from its upper end by a flight of steps. A vestibule and flight of steps are between the outer doorway and large room. The appearance of the whole interior, on entering, is very imposing, the high roof being covered with paintings, as also the further extremity fronting the entrance; and although these paintings, from exhibiting a mixture of fantastic heathen gods and goddesses, with royal and other portraits, are not individually in good taste or of any value, they serve to give a good general effect to the noble apartments they adorn. Along the walls are hung a collection of pictures, partly portraits of celebrated navigators and admirals, and partly depicting distinguished naval victories, each being a present to the institution by some benefactor. A good portrait of Captain Cook, by Dance, presented by Sir Joseph Banks, adorns the vestibule. A number of portraits, by Sir Peter Lely, Dahl, Sir Godfrey Kneller, and others, have been presented by George IV. There are several by Sir Joshua Reynolds. The painted ceiling of the great room was executed by Sir James Thornhill, in 1703, and several subsequent years; from a miscalculation as to the time required for the work, the remuneration fell short of what it ought to have been. It is related that, in consequence of the length of time he had

to lie on his back painting the ceiling, the artist could never afterwards sit upright. In the smaller apartment are shown several models of ships of war, admirably executed in wood; the coat worn by Nelson at the battle of the Nile; and the astrolabe of Sir Francis Drake, a curious brass instrument of antique fashion, used for nautical observation. It has been computed that nearly fifty thousand persons annually visit this magnificent suite of apartments, in which the excellent taste and judgment of the distinguished architect, Sir Christopher Wren, are displayed not only by their just proportion and embellishment, but in that studious regard to picturesque form and outline which he has bestowed in all his designs.

The park extending behind the hospital—ever open to the public—comprehends a considerable space of ground, of great natural and artificial beauty. A pathway, amidst lines of tall trees, leads to a piece of rising ground or mount—quite a hill to a Londoner—which, on holidays, generally exhibits a mirthful scene, youth of all classes considering it as a feat to run down the slope without falling or making a stop. On the summit is the Royal Observatory, founded by George III., for the promotion of astronomical science, and the scene of the labors of some men of distinguished ability. An astronomer-royal, supported by the crown, constantly resides and pursues investigations in the Observatory. It is scarcely necessary to remind the reader that, from this spot, British geographers, as also that of America, measure the longitude in their maps and charts.

DEPTFORD adjoins Greenwich on the west, being only separated from it by a muddy river called Ravensbourne, the mouth of which forms an estuary, known as Deptford Creek. Like Woolwich, this place is celebrated for its royal dockyard, commenced also in the reign of Henry VIII. The dockyard, with the victualling department and offices, covers above thirty acres. While Woolwich is now devoted to the preparation and custody of naval and military stores, Deptford is chiefly used for the building of ships; and it possesses wet and dry docks, mast-houses, smiths' shops, with about twenty forges for making anchors. From 1,000 to 1,500 men are usually employed here. The principal dépôt, however, for large vessels of war laid up in ordinary, is at SHEERNESS, near the mouth of the Thames. Peter the Great, of Russia, in 1698, studied the art of ship-building at Deptford. In the Thames, near Deptford, may be seen moored the hull of a ninety-eight gun ship, called the *Dreadnought*, which was dedicated by George III., as a seaman's hospital, and, as indicated by the inscription on its side, it is open to the reception of sick or disabled seamen of any nation. This noble charity is supported by voluntary contributions.

DULWICH is a pretty village, lying within the extended suburbs of the metropolis, in Surry, in a southerly direction from London Bridge. Here Edward Alleyn, or Allen, a distinguished actor in the reign of James I., founded and endowed a hospital or college, for the residence and support of poor persons, under certain limitations. The founder bequeathed some pictures to the institution, and the collection was vastly increased by the addition of a large number bequeathed in 1810, by Sir Francis Bourgeois. A splendid new gallery was opened in 1817; and this now forms a most attractive sight to all who delight in the fine arts.

CHELSEA is a village on the west of the metropolis. It is only eminent for its hospital for retired invalid soldiers, an institution similar in all respects to the asylum for decayed sailors at Greenwich. The hospital, which is situated on a flat stretch of ground between the village and the Thames, and was planned by Sir Christopher Wren, consists chiefly of one large edi-

fice of red brick, several stories in height, forming a centre and two wings, or three sides of a square, with the open side towards the bank of the Thames. On the north, in which is the main entrance, the style of architecture is simple, being ornamented with only a plain portico. The inner part of the centre building is more decorated, there being here a piazza of good proportions, forming a sheltered walk for the veteran inmates. In the centre of the open square interval stands a statue of Charles II., in whose time the hospital took its rise. The only parts of the house considered worthy to be shown to strangers are the chapel and old dining hall, both in the central building. The chapel is neat and plain in appearance, the rows of benches being furnished with prayer-books and hassocks, and the floor being paved with marble in alternate black and white squares. Above the communion-table there is a painting of the Ascension, containing some good figures. The dining-hall is equally spacious, but is now disused as a refectory, though the tables stand ready covered for use.

The usual number of in-pensioners is about 476, and of out-pensioners not fewer than 80,000, who reside in all parts of the United Kingdom. The former are provided with all the necessaries, and the latter have each pensions varying from £7 12s. to £54 15s. yearly. The inmates wear an antique garb of red cloth, in which they may be seen loitering about the village.

Near Sloane Square, Chelsea, is situated a large building forming the *Royal Military Asylum*, for the support and education of about 500 poor children, whose parents were non-commissioned officers and privates in the army. Each regiment contributes annually one day's pay, to aid in supporting the institution.

RICHMOND is a village situated on the south bank of the Thames, at about nine miles by land from Hyde Park Corner, and sixteen miles by following the windings of the river. The most pleasant mode of conveyance to it is by one of the small steamboats from Hungerford Stairs, for then an opportunity is afforded of seeing numerous beautiful and interesting spots on both sides of the river. In passing upwards, we have on our right, Chelsea; Fulham, at which is the residence of the Bishop of London; and the pretty village of Chiswick; on the left, Battersea, Putney, Mortlake, the royal residence of Kew and its gardens, next which is Richmond. The village of Richmond stands on a slope overhanging the river, and possesses no point of attraction. Opposite the village is a stone bridge crossing the Thames, which is here very much narrowed, and further than this steam-vessels do not go. Richmond is only interesting from its exceedingly beautiful environs. South from the village, a pretty steep bank ascends to the green and bushy eminence called Richmond Hill, and from the walks on its prominent front, a view is obtained of the beautifully wooded country on the opposite side of the river. Among numerous villas, ornamental grounds, and other attractive objects, may be seen Twickenham, situated in the immediate vicinity, on the west bank of the Thames. In the house for which the present was erected as a substitute, lived Pope, the poet, and his body is entombed in the church. Close by Twickenham is Strawberry Hill, once the seat of Horace Walpole, and now belonging to Lord Waldegrave. Moving onwards along the brow of the eminence, and passing the well-known hotel called the Star and Garter, we enter the famous Richmond Park, which is eight miles in circumference, and ornamented with many magnificent large trees. These extensive grounds were at one time connected with a royal palace, but there is now no such edifice—one or two



hunting lodges excepted, and these are not used by royalty; but the park is still a domain of the crown, and freely open to the public. From Richmond, it is but a short excursion to Hampton Court.

HAMPTON is about thirteen miles from London by land, and twenty-four by water, on account of the windings of the Thames. The village is unimportant, and the chief object of attraction is Hampton Court Palace. The palace, which is situated within an enclosed garden near the west, or perhaps more correctly the north bank of the Thames, was originally built by Cardinal Wolsey, and a portion of the structure which he reared is still extant in the northern quadrangle. Here was the scene of the humiliation and forfeiture of that servant of Henry VIII., who at this place often held his court, and made it the scene of his Christmas festivities; here Edward VI. was born; here were held the masques, mummeries, and tournaments of Philip and Mary, and Elizabeth; here James I. held his court and famous meeting of controversialists; here Charles I. was immured as a state prisoner, and took leave of his children; here was celebrated the marriage of Cromwell's daughter and Lord Falconberg; here Charles II. had occasionally his impure residence; here lived William and Mary after the revolution of 1688; and here, till the reign of George II., royal courts were sometimes held. The palace, in external appearance, is a lofty and magnificent structure of red brick, ornamented with pale free-stone cornices and edgings to the doors and windows. Altogether, the edifice consists of three quadrangles. Entering by the grand staircase, the visitor is conducted through a suite of lofty and large apartments, furnished in an old-fashioned style, and decorated with pictures. The guard-room, which is first in order, contains, besides a series of English admirals by Kneller and Dahl, a variety of ancient warlike instruments. In the next apartment are seen portraits of various beauties of the court of England, painted by Kneller, who has here depicted several lovely countenances, though a sameness runs through the whole, and none are so striking as to leave any impression. In the third room is seen what is generally esteemed as the finest painting in the house—a portrait of Charles I. on horseback, by Vandyke—and which ought to be seen, in order to have a just appreciation of this great master's admirable style. There is also an excellent painting of Bandinelli in his studio, by Correggio. The third room, or audience-chamber, has also some good pictures; among others, a painting of the family of Louis Cornaro, a person celebrated for his extraordinary temperance. The picture, which is from an original, by Titian, shows Cornaro and three generations of descendants, who appear in the act of adoration at a shrine. There are likewise portraits of Titian and his uncle, done by Titian himself, and a spirited battle-piece by Julio Romano.

The fourth apartment, or queen's drawing-room, is enriched with an exceedingly fine painting of Charles I., a whole length, by Vandyke, esteemed the best likeness we have of that monarch. There is a well-known and most beautiful print from it by Sir Robert Strange, the prince of English line engravers. In the next room, or state bed-chamber, the visitor will see a beautiful portrait of Ann Hyde, daughter of Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, and mother of the successive queens, Mary and Anne. The queen's dressing-room and writing-closet, and Queen Mary's state bed-chamber, which follow, contain many fine pictures, by Holbein, Sir Peter Lely, Sebastian del Piombo, Louis da Vinci, Albert Durer, and others. After having traversed these stately and silent halls, the visitor is led out through a long, dreary, ill-lighted apartment, the walls of which are ornamented with what at first

sight he may suppose very wretched daubs, but which prove to be some of the famous cartoons of Raphael—productions whose praises have resounded over the whole civilized world.

On the opposite side of the public road from the palace gardens, is *Bushy Park*, a royal domain, and now the residence of the Queen Dowager, embellished with an avenue of splendid horse-chestnut trees, and open to the inspection of the public.

WINDSOR is situated in the county of Berks, at the distance of 22 miles west from London by the road through Brentford, but may now be reached in less than half an hour by the Great Western railway from Paddington. Windsor occupies a rising ground on the south bank of the Thames, and is only interesting for its ancient and most extensive castle, the chief country residence of the queen. The gates of the castle are close upon the main street of the town, and lead to enclosures containing a number of mansions, barracks, and other structures. The principal portion of the castle occupies two courts, an upper and lower, of spacious dimensions, and having between them a large round tower in which the governor resides. In the lower court is St. George's Chapel, an elegant Gothic edifice, in which service is performed on Sundays in presence of the royal residents. Besides the chapel, the only parts of the castle attractive to strangers are the state apartments in the upper or northern quarter. Behind these buildings, facing the north, is the famed terrace of the castle, from which a view is obtained over a most beautiful piece of country.

At the head of the manufacturing towns stands MANCHESTER, the chief seat of the principal manufacture of England—that of cotton. This town is situated on the river Irwell, in the south-east district of Lancashire, at the distance of 182 miles from London. Inclusive of Salford, a separate municipality on the other side of the Irwell, and also comprehending a few connected villages, Manchester contained in 1841 a population of 290,183. The ground on which it stands is a perfect level, and, from whatever side it is approached, its crowd of spires, towers, manufactories, and warehouses, appears mingling with the smoke that hangs over it. The older part of the town clusters round the collegiate church, an elegant and spacious structure of the time of Henry VII., or extends in the ancient street called Deansgate. The busiest commercial street is Market-street, and the most elegant is Mosley-street. The town contains most of the usual public buildings to be found in one of its size—a town-hall, infirmary, prison, exchange, &c., besides several institutions of a literary and scientific character; and several of these buildings, particularly the two first, are of remarkable elegance. A botanic garden, about a mile from the outskirts of the town, is a great ornament, and forms a most delightful as well as instructive place of recreation. There is also a zoological garden.

The factories of Manchester exceed a hundred and sixty in number; they employ between forty and fifty thousand persons, and steam engine equal in power to six thousand horses. About four-fifths of the cotton manufacture of the kingdom centres in Lancashire, and of this a large proportion is confined to Manchester. The woollen, linen, and silk trade, particularly the last, and many smaller manufactures, as of hats, pins, umbrellas, &c., are also carried on to a large extent in this town. It may be added that the making of machinery has of late years become a thriving trade in Manchester.

Manchester is connected with its port, Liverpool, by a railway, and by

means of the Irwell and numerous canals; and transports and receives goods to and from other parts of the kingdom.

LEEDS, the chief town for the manufacture of cloths, is situated in the West Riding of Yorkshire, on a slope gently rising from the river Aire, at a distance of 189 miles from London. It contains a few streets of handsome houses, but as in many other English manufacturing towns, utility appears to be more in contemplation than ornament or elegance. The population in 1841 was 151,063. There are some goodly public structures, as a court-house, commercial buildings, theatre, &c., and the town enjoys the benefits of a literary and philosophical society, an institution for the promotion of the fine arts, and several public libraries.

Leeds is the centre of a large district devoted to the making of mixed and white cloths. Cloths of light fabrics, and blankets and carpets, are also made here in considerable quantity; but the mixed and white cloths form the staple of the business of the district. The mode in which these are sold in Leeds, gives occasion for the existence of two public buildings of a most peculiar nature. They are called respectively the Mixed Cloth Hall and the White Cloth Hall. A description of the former, from a popular work, will convey an idea of both. "The Mixed Cloth Hall was erected in 1758, at the general expense of the merchants. It is a quadrangular edifice, surrounding a large open area, from which it receives the light abundantly, by a great number of lofty windows; it is 128 yards in length, and 66 in breadth, divided in the interior into six departments, or covered streets, each including two rows of stands, amounting in number to 1800, held as freehold property by various manufacturers, every stand being marked with the name of the proprietor. This hall is exclusively appropriated to the use of persons who have served regular apprenticeship to the trade or mystery of making colored cloths. The markets are held on Tuesdays and Saturdays, and only for an hour and a half each day, at which period alone sales can take place. The market-bell rings at six o'clock in the morning in summer, and at seven in winter, when the markets are speedily filled, the benches covered with cloths, and the proprietors respectively take their stands; the bell ceasing, the buyers enter, and proceed with secrecy, silence, and expedition, to bargain for the cloth they may require; and business is thus summarily transacted, often involving an exchange of property to a vast amount. When the time for selling is terminated, the bell again rings, and any merchant staying in the hall, after it has ceased, becomes liable to a penalty. The hall is under the management of fifteen trustees, who hold their meetings in an octagonal building, erected near the entrance to this hall."

HUDDERSFIELD, WAKEFIELD, SADDLEWORTH, HALIFAX, and BRADFORD, all in Yorkshire, and ROCHDALE in Lancashire, are other towns noted for their concern in the cloth manufacture, but of inferior population, and not distinguished by any remarkable features. AXMINSTER, KIDDERMINSTER, ASHTON, and WILTON, are the chief seats of the carpet manufacture. BRADFORD, in Wiltshire, is distinguished for superfine cloths.

PRESTON and LANCASTER may also be named among the manufacturing towns; the former contains the courts of Lancaster county, and the latter is celebrated in history as a Roman station, and is noted for its fine old castle, founded in the time of Severus, and subsequently the residence of John O'Gaunt. Lancaster has long been engaged in the silk and cotton business, and is well known throughout the kingdom for the superiority of

its cabinet ware, which employs a large number in its manufacture. This town is rising in importance as a railway centre.

BIRMINGHAM, the chief town in the kingdom engaged in metallic manufactures, is situated in Warwickshire, at the distance of 109 miles from London. The lower part of the town consists chiefly of old buildings, is crowded with workshops and warehouses, and is inhabited principally by manufacturers; but the upper part has a superior appearance, consisting of new and regular streets, and containing a number of elegant buildings. Among the public buildings the town-hall calls for particular notice, being a magnificent structure of the Corinthian order, in the proportions of the temple of Jupiter Stator at Rome. The population of Birmingham in 1841 was 182,922, being all, except a small fraction, engaged in trade and manufactures.

Among the principal manufactures are buttons, in immense variety, buckles, cloak-pins, and snuff-boxes; toys, trinkets, and jewellery: polished steel watch-chains, corkscrews, &c.; plated goods for the dining and tea-table, now in the way of being superseded by similar goods of mixed metal; japanned and enamelled articles: brass work of every description; swords and fire-arms; medals and coins of various kinds; copying machines and pneumatic apparatus; grates, fire-irons, gas-light burners, nails, and steel-pens. Besides almost every metallic article which can be considered as curious, useful or ornamental, cut crystal is produced to a large extent, while certain branches of the cotton trade connected with hardware, as the making of the cloth for umbrellas, braces, girths, &c., have also fixed themselves here, in order to facilitate the preparation of those articles.

The operations of the Birmingham manufactures are carried on chiefly by means of founderies, rolling-mills, die-stamping machines, and turning-lathes. From the founderies proceed all heavy iron goods, and even a considerable quantity of small wares, though the work required in trimming these articles after they leave the sand causes a constant tendency towards the use of the die-stamp in preference. By the latter machine, not only are buttons and other small articles produced, but likewise complicated decorative articles of many various kinds, to which it might be supposed that the process was inapplicable. The rolling-mill is a ponderous engine, for pressing out ingots of metal into sheets of requisite thinness. The lathe, a conspicuous machine in the workshops of Birmingham, is used for the preparation of articles of correctly circular, and also of oval form. It is usually driven by steam; and in many instances this power is not generated in the premises of those who use it, but is obtained for a rent from some engine kept by a different individual in the neighborhood.

To give an idea of the extent of some branches of trade, and the activity of some kinds of machinery at Birmingham, it may be stated that, at the pin-works, some years ago, 50,000 pins could be made from the wire, in an hour; that there is a coining-mill which produces between thirty and forty thousand pieces of coin in the same time; and that, from 1805 to 1818, 5,000,000 stands of arms were made for public and private service. The making of steel-pens, which, before 1821, was scarcely known, is now a great manufacture. Probably not less than 5,000,000 are made annually. The article was originally sold at the rate of one shilling each pen; and now, from improvements and facilities in the manufacture, 144 are sold at the same money.

SHEFFIELD, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, ranks only second to Birmingham as a seat of metallic manufactures. It is a town of above 130,000

inhabitants, great part of whom are engaged in the business for which Sheffield is remarkable. The situation of the town, upon a swelling piece of ground near the confluence of the Sheaf and Don, gives it health and cleanliness, but only the newer streets and suburban villas are neat, and the town is constantly involved in the smoke arising from the manufactories. A music hall, post-office, and medical hall, together with a building called the cutlers' hall, in which the members of that trade meet for an annual banquet, are the chief public buildings boasting of any elegance of exterior.

Sheffield was famous in the middle ages for producing knives and arrow heads. From such small beginnings, it advanced in the course of ages to its present distinction. An immense quantity of knives, scissors, implements of husbandry, and surgical and mathematical instruments, is now made in it. The manufacture of plate, and of goods in imitation of it, as also of carpenters' tools, printing types, hair-cloth, and many other articles, is carried on to an immense extent. The manufactures of Sheffield have the peculiarity of being chiefly in the hands of men of moderate capital and limited business, though there are also a few houses which engross a vast quantity of the principal trade. The establishments for the grinding and polishing of cutlery are among the most striking objects of curiosity to a stranger; and the show-room of the Messrs. Rogers, cutlers to the Royal Family, is a splendid museum, where all the local manufactures may be seen, of the best quality, and in the finest order.

COVENTRY, an ancient city in Warwickshire, 91 miles from London, is a great seat of the manufacture of ribbons, and also of watches. Some other manufactures, carried on to a great extent in the last century, including gauzes and calimancoes, have declined, leaving these alone flourishing.

Coventry is an ancient town of note, and contains, besides some good modern public buildings, an old church of remarkable beauty as a specimen of Gothic architecture, and a very curious old hall (St. Mary's Hall,) used for festive purposes, having a grotesquely carved oak roof, and a piece of tapestry, wrought in 1450, measuring 30 feet by 10, and containing 80 figures. The town was remarkable in early ages for the performance of the grotesque religious dramas called Mysteries, and for the shows and pageants which took place in celebration of the visits of royal personages. One pageant of an extraordinary character has been performed annually ever since the reign of Charles II. It is designed to commemorate a real or imaginary incident, which is thus related: Leofric, Earl of Mercia, who possessed the property of the tolls and services of Coventry, exacted his dues so rigidly, that the inhabitants were greatly aggrieved, and at length Godiva, his pious wife, became their advocate. The earl, wearied by her solicitations, promised to grant her request, if she would ride naked through the town at mid-day. His terms, according to the legend, were accepted, and the countess rode through the town with no covering but her flowing tresses. It is added, that she had modestly commanded every person to keep within doors and away from the windows, on pain of death, but that one person could not forbear taking a glance, and lost his life for his curiosity. The procession commemorative of the occurrence includes the whole of the officials of the corporation, besides a female of easy purchase, who rides in a dress of linen closely fitted to her limbs and colored like them. The curious person who stole the glance is called *Peeping Tom*, and a wooden image of him is to be seen on a house in the city.

DERBY, the capital of Derbyshire, is an ancient but now considerably modernized town, situated on a pleasant slope and irregular ground, on the

south side of the vale of the Derwent, a river tributary to the Trent, pursuing a winding course through the county, and of great value in moving mill-machinery. Derby is the centre of one of the most productive and industrious districts in England, particularly as respects the manufacture of iron and other minerals. In the town and its neighborhood there are large manufactories of lace, galloons, broad silks, silk hosiery, china, marble, jewellery, &c.; several extensive mills and manufactories have been built within these few years, and the machinery is equal to that of any other part of the kingdom. The town is irregularly built, and excepting some new erections in the corn-market, an infirmary, and an old church, with an elegant and conspicuous tower, it owns no public building worthy of remark. Though placed in the midst of a stone district, the houses are as usual built of brick. Within these two years, Derby has come prominently into notice, by being on the line of the extended series of railways from Durham and Yorkshire to London, and the station here is of magnificent proportions; the distance from London, 126 miles, is performed by railway in about seven hours. In 1840, the town received from Mr. Joseph Strutt the munificent gift of a pleasure-ground, eleven acres in extent, and called by him the Arboretum. It is replenished with walks, seats, and every way fitted up for promenading and recreation; it is opened freely two days in the week to all classes, and on other days is accessible on payment of a small fee.

CARLISLE, which in early times was distinguished as a bulwark against the invasions of the Scottish armies, and as a cathedral city, has latterly acquired some note as a seat of manufactures, particularly in the department of cotton-spinning, calico-printing, and the weaving of ginghams, &c. The establishment of railway communications has within the last few years added to its commercial prosperity.

LIVERPOOL, next to London, is the greatest port in the empire. It is situated in Lancashire, on the east bank of the estuary of the Mersey, at the distance of 36 miles from Manchester, and 204 from London. The town extends for about three miles along the Mersey, and rather more than one mile inland, the situation enjoying a slight slope towards the river. On the side next the country, the town extends into numerous suburban districts, comprehending many villas, the residences of the more wealthy citizens. Liverpool, in 1841, contained 286,487 inhabitants; but, inclusive of the immediate environs, and the persons engaged in navigation, the whole number is believed to be not less than 300,000. Its rise has been surprisingly rapid. In the reign of Elizabeth, it was only a small village: in 1700, there were about 5,000 inhabitants; in 1760, 26,000; and in 1801, 77,653.

Liverpool is the grand medium through which the trade of England with Ireland and America is carried on; and a vast quantity of business is transacted by its merchants with the ports of the Mediterranean, East Indies and other parts of the world. The leading article of import is the cotton so extensively used in the manufactories of Lancashire. The rural produce of Ireland, cattle, bacon, poultry, eggs, &c., forms the import next in amount. The duties paid at the custom-house of Liverpool, average about a fifth of those paid throughout the whole kingdom. About 10,000 vessels, of all kinds, averaging about 200 tons each, visit the port annually. Liverpool is the great outlet for the goods manufactured in Lancashire and Yorkshire for sale in America. It is stated that one mercantile house in the American trade, has in one year shipped and received goods to the amount of a

million sterling. In connection with the commerce carried on with the United States, there is a large transit of passengers. This is carried on by means of a periodical series of well-appointed and quick-sailing vessels, usually termed "liners;" but for ten years past, it has been conducted also by means of steam-vessels. There are also steam-vessels conveying passengers, daily, to and from Dublin, Glasgow, and several Welsh ports, and only a little less frequently to other Irish harbors, and to several ports in the south-western division of England.

The town, thus so extensively concerned in that commerce from which England derives its chief glory, presents many external features not unworthy of its mercantile character. Of these the chief is the docks, a magnificent series of deep-water harbors, extending along the whole front of the town. They are 12 or 13 in number, with an aggregate superficies of 30 acres, and eight miles of quays! In the year ending June 24, 1840, the dues paid by vessels entering and leaving them was £197,477 18s. 6d. The sight of these docks, bristling with numberless masts, and a scene of constant bustle, from loading and unloading, fills a stranger with astonishment.

The town contains several handsome streets, the chief being Castle-street and Dale-street. The Town-Hall and Exchange buildings form an elegant and impressive assemblage of objects, having a bronze group in the intermediate court, commemorative of the death of Lord Nelson. The Custom-House is, as might be expected, a conspicuous edifice, but in a heavy style of architecture. The other public buildings—the Corn-Exchange, Lyceum, Athenæum, Wellington Rooms, Infirmary, &c., are goodly structures. There are upwards of thirty churches belonging to the establishment, many of them of much architectural beauty; a greater number of chapels belonging to various denominations of dissenters; with six Roman Catholic chapels, a meeting-house for Quakers, and a Jews' synagogue. The charitable institutions are numerous and well-conducted. About 3,000 patients are admitted annually into the Infirmary. The Blue-Coat Hospital maintains and educates 200 boys and girls. The school for the blind is on a most extensive scale. Several handsome and spacious theatres, and a circus, are open during a great part of the year. At the Royal Liverpool Institution, public lectures are given; and attached to it is a philosophical apparatus and a museum of natural curiosities. A botanic garden was established in 1801, at an expense of £10,000. There is also a mechanics' institution of unusual extent and elegance, having been erected at an expense of £11,000. It includes schools for the young, as well as for the adolescent; and in the amount of its funds, and variety of the branches of knowledge taught, the establishment may be described as a kind of university for the middle and working classes of Liverpool. Among the remarkable objects connected with the town, the ornamental Cemetery of St. James's, formed out of an old stone quarry, is worthy of particular notice. It contains a statue of Mr. Huskisson, who was interred in it. The Manchester and Liverpool Railway was the first of any extent built in England, and is still considered as one of the best.

BRISTOL, a large sea-port town, is situated partly in the county of Somerset, and partly in that of Gloucester, at the junction of the rivers Avon and Frome, and about ten miles from the junction of the former (which is navigable) with the Bristol Channel. It is one of a few English towns which possess the dubiously-acknowledged privilege of being counties in themselves, and it is also the cathedral city for the diocese of Bristol. Bristol

is an ancient town, and has long enjoyed distinction as a sea-port. Previous to the rise of Liverpool, to which it is now greatly inferior, it was the chief port of the west of England. It still possesses considerable trade, and has further of late years become the seat of some active and thriving manufactures. Sugar, rum, and tea, are the chief foreign imports, while the chief exports are the native manufactures, and cotton, woollen, and linen goods. The chief native manufactures are soap, glass bottles, various metallic wares, drugs, dyes, and soda. It is honorable to Bristol that, as in its ancient days of supereminency as a port, it sent out the first English vessel across the Atlantic, (that of Cabot, which discovered North America,) so, in these days, it was the first to establish a communication by steam with the same continent. This was done in 1838, when the Great Western performed its first voyage. The population of Bristol, in 1841, was 122,296.

Bristol is a well-built town, containing many spacious streets and squares, and extending into several beautiful suburban villages: as Clifton, Kingsdown, and St. Michael's, where the residences of the wealthiest citizens are placed. The city contains many public structures of an interesting character. The cathedral is a fine specimen of the Gothic architecture, and the Church of St. Mary Radcliffe is considered one of the most beautiful in England. The "floating harbor," formed out of the ancient beds of the two rivers, and surrounded by an immense extent of quay, is a most impressive object; the cost of its construction was not much less than £700,000. The Guildhall, Jail, Commercial Rooms, and Institution, (which contains a library, hall for lectures, &c.,) are other public buildings of an elegant appearance. Clifton, being the site of a well-known hot well, contains a suit of baths and pump-rooms.

NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE, an ancient and prosperous seat of commerce, occupies a somewhat incommodious situation on the left or north bank of the Tyne, at the distance of about ten miles from the sea. It is locally in the county of Northumberland, and by means of a bridge across the Tyne is connected with the populous borough of Gatehead, in the county of Durham. It owes the origin of its name to Robert, the eldest son of William the Conqueror, who erected a fortress on the high bluff which here overhangs the river, and gave it the name of Newcastle. For ages the town was surrounded by strong walls, as a protection against invading Scottish armies: these, however, have disappeared, and in modern times the town has spread over the irregular acclivities and upland which border the river. The old fort or castle still exists, also the ancient Gothic Church of St. Nicholas, whose elegant turret is conspicuous at a considerable distance. The main cause of the increasing importance of Newcastle, is its fortunate situation in the midst of the great coal-field of Northumberland and Durham, the produce of which finds a ready outlet by the Tyne. The plentifulness of coal has led to the establishment of numerous manufactures, among which are numbered cast and wrought iron, machinery, lead, glass, chemical productions, pottery, soap, and glue. The older parts of the town near the river exhibit a busy scene of industry; here are crowded together ship and boat-building yards, wharfs for vessels, iron-founderies and machine-manufactories, and all the usual works connected with a great sea-port. The streets in this quarter are dirty and smoky, but other parts of the town are of great elegance. Since 1834, by the extraordinary energy and taste of Mr. Richard Grainger, a speculating architect, a large portion of the town has been taken down and rebuilt with handsome stone-houses,



amidst which are various public buildings, including a theatre, an exchange, extensive markets, &c. Newcastle must be considered the metropolis of a rich and populous district, including Tynemouth, North and South Shields, (all at the mouth of the Tyne,) Sunderland, Durham, and Gatehead; and with these it is intimately connected by means of the river, railways, or otherwise. At Shields and Sunderland are the great dépôts of shipping in the coal and other trades. Besides its remarkable manufacturing and commercial industry, Newcastle is distinguished for its philosophical and literary institutions, no other town of its kind possessing so many inhabitants of cultivated taste.

HULL, (properly Kingston-upon-Hull,) is situated at the confluence of the River Hull with the estuary of the Humber, in the East Riding of Yorkshire, of which district it is the principal town. It commands an extraordinary amount of inland navigation, not only by means of the Trent, Ouse, Derwent, and other branches of the Humber, but by means of canals connecting with those streams, and penetrating to the very heart of England. It is the principal outlet for the manufactures of York and Lancashire towards the continent of Europe, the chief seat of the northern whale fishery, and one of the most important stations for steam-navigation in the island, having packets of that kind voyaging, not only to London, Newcastle, Leith, and Aberdeen, besides many inland places in its own district, but to Rotterdam, Hamburg, and occasionally to some of the ports in what is more particularly called the north of Europe. Hull was a noted port so early as the reign of Edward VI.; and in the seventeenth century it was a great dépôt for arms, on which account the possession of it in the time of the civil war, became an object of much importance. The refusal of its governor, Sir John Hotham, to give it up at that time to Charles I., or even to admit his majesty within the gates, is a conspicuous incident in English history. For some years, owing to various circumstances, some branches of the commerce of the port have experienced a decline rather than an advance; but it is still a town of large trade. For the accommodation of the shipping there is a splendid range of docks, presenting an amount of quayage said to measure 60,000 square yards, and with all the suitable accommodations for storing a vast quantity of merchandise.

CHESTER is one of the less important and less populous of the commercial towns of England. Such importance, however, as it possesses as a commercial town, is enhanced by its being a county town and cathedral city, and the residence of a considerable number of persons in independent circumstances. It is also remarkable for its antiquity and its historical associations, as well as for some local features of an unusual kind.

It is situated within a bend of the Dee, a few miles from the point where that river joins an estuary branching from the Irish Channel. The two principal streets cross each other at right angles, and the town is still surrounded by the massive walls which were originally designed to protect it from warlike aggression, but are now only useful as an agreeable promenade, from which some pleasant views of the surrounding country may be obtained. The streets are formed in hollows dug out of rock, so that the lowest floor of each house is under the level of the ground behind, though looking out upon the carriage-way in front. The paths for passengers are not here, as is usually the case, formed in lateral lines along the streets, but in a piazza, running along the front of what in England is called the first, and in Scotland more correctly the second floor, of the houses. These piazzas, called in Chester "the Rows," are accessible from the

street by stairs at convenient distances. There are numerous shops entered from them, and they in some places still retain the massive wooden balustrades with which all were originally furnished, but for which, in other places, light iron railings have been substituted. Where the houses and balustrades are old, the effect is very curious and striking, and apt to awaken ideas of ancient usages and habits long passed away. The Cathedral of Chester contains some curious ancient architecture. The Castle is a splendid modern building, on the site of the powerful fortress which was once of such importance as a check upon the Welsh: it contains the county court-house, jail, &c. The principal other buildings are the Halls, built by the merchants to serve as marts, of which there are three, besides the Exchange. The bridge across the Dee is a remarkable object, being of one arch, with a span of 200 feet; it cost \$40,000.

Chester was an important station of the Romans, from whom it derived the cross form of its two principal streets, and of whom many relics have, from time to time, been dug up. It retained its importance during Saxon and Norman times, and in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries was a flourishing city, with a large maritime trade. It then declined, in consequence of natural obstructions to the navigation of the river. From the year 1328, downwards, it was remarkable for the annual performance of a peculiar class of theatrical representations, similar to those performed at Coventry, and termed *Mysteries*. To modern taste these would seem the most gross burlesque of sacred subjects; but so convinced were the clergy of those days of their edifying qualities, that a thousand days of pardon from the Pope, and forty from the Bishop of Chester, were granted to all who attended them. After a long period of declension, the trade of Chester was revived by the cutting of a new channel for the river, whereby vessels of 600 tons burden were enabled to come to the quays near the town. The commerce, with the exception of a few ships which visit Spain, Portugal, the Mediterranean, and the Baltic, is chiefly confined to Ireland, whence an immense quantity of linen, hemp, flax, skins, and provisions, is imported. The exports of Chester are cheese, (the staple production of the county,) lead, coal, calamine, copper-plates, and cast-iron. Ship-building is carried on to a considerable extent, and there are some manufactures of inferior consequence.

SOUTHAMPTON is an ancient but considerably modernized town, the capital of Hampshire, and, next to Portsmouth and Plymouth, may be considered the chief outport on the southern coast. It enjoys a situation at once pleasant and convenient, in a vale adjoining to the bay bearing its own name. In modern times, the town has been greatly improved and increased, by the erection of lines of handsome streets in the environs, the residence of a respectable and leisurely population. Among the attractions of the neighborhood, are those of the New Forest, which almost adjoins the town, and a beach forming a pleasant bathing-place in summer; few sea-side towns are more salubrious or agreeable. With the Isle of Wight, at a few miles' distance, there is a constant communication by steamboats. The South-Western Railway, which terminates near the shore of the bay, has greatly advanced the interests of the town, by making it a *dépôt* of traffic in connection with the metropolis; and there are now constructed, at a great cost, large wet-docks and wharfs for shipping. A considerable trade is already carried on with foreign countries, and the port is a main point of steam communication between England and the United States, in

which, and some other respects, it is a rising rival of the neighboring town of Portsmouth. The population in 1841 was 19,324, and is now estimated at 40,000.

OXFORD, the chief of the University cities, is the principal town in Oxfordshire, and is situated in a valley at the confluence of the Isis and Cherwell, at the distance of 58 miles from London. Besides being the seat of the celebrated university named from it, it is the seat of an episcopal see. Containing twenty colleges and five "halls," a cathedral, and thirteen elegant parish churches, besides the Radcliffe Library, the University, Theatre, and several other elegant public buildings, all condensed into a small space, amidst streets, some of which are straight and elegant, while none except a few of an obscure character are mean, Oxford appears to a stranger as beautiful externally as its historic character renders it venerable. The High-street, in which several colleges are situated, is generally acknowledged to be one of the finest streets in the world. The origin of the university is usually attributed, but upon no certain authority, to King Alfred. Oxford has certainly, however, been a famed seat of learning since the twelfth century. Each college and hall has its own students and teachers, revenues and regulations; yet they are all united under the government of one university. The officers by whom the university is immediately governed, are the chancellor, high steward, vice-chancellor, and two proctors. In addition to the private officers in each college and hall, who see that due order and discipline are preserved, and all the liberal sciences taught, there are twenty-three public professors of the several arts and sciences. The students wear a peculiar dress, varied according to their status in the college. They all live within the precincts of their respective colleges, or lodge in licensed boarding-houses.

CAMBRIDGE is the chief town in Cambridgeshire, and is situated on the Cam, at the distance of 50 miles from London. It is also an elegant city, though less so than Oxford. The university has no certain date before 1229: it comprehends seventeen colleges, which in most respects are similar to those of Oxford. King's College Chapel, built in the reign of Henry VI., is considered the most beautiful structure in either of the two university towns.

PORTSMOUTH, the principal rendezvous of the British navy, is situated on the west side of the Isle of Portsea, in Hampshire. To the west of the island is the bay called Portsmouth Harbour, excelling every other on the coast of England for its spaciousness, depth, and security. The obvious utility of this harbour in such a situation, caused it to be used at an early period as a station for shipping, and hence the rise of the town of Portsmouth on the narrow inlet by which it communicates with the English Channel. It is also to be observed, that the strait between the mouth of this harbour and the Isle of Wight, forms the celebrated roadstead of Spithead, which is capable of containing a thousand sail at anchor in the greatest security. The original or old town of Portsmouth, surrounded by ancient walls; the modern suburban towns of Portsea and Southsea, respectively situated to the north and south of the original town; and the town of Gosport, on the opposite side of the inlet to the harbour, may all be said to form one cluster of population, probably numbering not less than 100,000. The beach opposite Southsea being well adapted for sea-bathing, has caused that suburb or village to become a watering-place of some note.

The docks, arsenal, building-yards, and all the various other establishments concerned with the fitting out and safe keeping of the national ship

ping, render Portsmouth an object of wonder to all who see it for the first time. The Dock-yard includes the great area of 100 acres. The Smithery is a vast building, where anchors are wrought, weighing from seventy to ninety hundred weight each. On the Anchor-Wharf hundreds of these useful implements are piled up, ready for immediate service. The Ropery, where the cordage for the vessels is prepared, is three stories high, 54 feet broad, and 1094 feet long. The Gun-Wharf is an immense arsenal, consisting of various ranges of buildings for the reception of naval and military stores, artillery, &c. The Small Armory is capable of containing 25,000 stand of arms. There is a naval college, where a hundred scholars, in time of war, and seventy in time of peace, are taught; thirty, who are the children of officers, being maintained and educated at the public expense. During war, the number of persons employed in the various establishments connected with the public service at Portsmouth has amounted to 5000. The principal buildings connected with the arsenal and dockyards, are the commissioner's house, the government house, the victualling office, the port-admiral's house, and the naval and military barracks. The promenade along the fortifications forms one of the most agreeable features of the town. Among objects of curiosity, we may specify the Victory, Nelson's flag-ship at Trafalgar; the Semapore Telegraph; and the house (No. 110 High-street) in which the Duke of Buckingham was temporarily residing, when, in front of it, he was stabbed to death by Lieutenant Felton, in 1628. The church of Portsmouth is a spacious Gothic structure, with a comparatively modern tower, useful as a landmark to seamen. There are various charitable institutions connected with the town, chiefly, however, for the relief of disabled and sick seamen.

PLYMOUTH is another important naval-station, besides being a thriving commercial town. It is situated at the head of the spacious haven of Plymouth Sound, in Devonshire, on the east side of a tongue of land formed by the estuaries of the rivers Plym and Tamar, which here empty themselves into the sea. Essentially connected with Plymouth is *Devonport*, situated in the immediate neighbourhood, and properly an appendage of Plymouth, though of late years distinguished by a separate name. Plymouth having gradually risen from the condition of a small fishing-town to its present size, most of the streets are irregular, and by no means elegant or commodious; but the new parts of the town are handsome, and are spreading rapidly.

Plymouth carries on a considerable trade in timber with North America and the Baltic, and an intercourse has been established with the West Indies. The coasting trade is chiefly with London, Newcastle, Newport, (in Wales,) and Bristol. The chief imports are coal, culm, corn, wine, and timber.

It is as a naval and military station that the town is chiefly distinguished. Situated upon a capacious and secure natural harbour, near the mouth of the English Channel, it is well adapted for this purpose, fleets having a ready exit from it upon any expedition towards the Mediterranean, the Indies, or America. The dock, which is situated at Devonport, (formerly on that account called Plymouth Dock,) extends along the bank of the Tamar, in a curve 3500 feet in length, with a width at the middle, where it is greatest, of 1600 feet, and at each extremity 1000, thus including an area of 96 acres. Of the fortifications connected with Plymouth, the most remarkable is the citadel, which was erected in the reign of Charles II. It is placed in a most commanding situation on the east end of the height called

the *Hoe*, which shelters the town from the sea. It is exceedingly well fortified, and is constantly garrisoned. It contains the residence of the Governor of Plymouth, and barracks for five or six hundred troops. The Victualling Office, an important establishment, containing storehouses, granaries, baking-houses, and cellars for supplying the meat, bread, and liquors required to provision the vessels of the Royal Navy, occupies a splendid building in the adjacent township of East Stonehouse. The port of Plymouth is distinguished for its capacity, and the security which it affords in its several parts. It is capable of containing 2000 sail, and is one of the finest harbours in the world. It consists of three divisions or harbours—Sutton Pool, immediately adjoining the town; Cutwater, an extensive sheet, formed by the estuary of the Plym; and the harbour or bay of Hamoaze. At the mouth of these harbours, the great bay of Plymouth Sound forms an excellent roadstead, which is now completely secure by the erection of the breakwater across its entrance. This work is an insulated mole, or vast heap of stones, stretching across the entrance of the sound so far as to leave a passage for vessels at either end, and opposing a barrier to the heavy swell rolling in from the Atlantic. Its length is 1700 yards, the eastern extremity being about 60 fathoms to the eastward of St. Carlos's Rocks, and the western, 300 west of the Shovel Rock. The middle part is continued in a straight line 1000 yards, and the two extremities incline towards the northern side of the straight part in an angle of about 120 degrees. This great work was begun August 12, 1812. During its progress convincing proofs of its efficacy and utility were afforded. The expense of erecting the breakwater is estimated at £1,171,100. The Eddystone Light-house is an important appendage to the harbour, the entrance of which would, without this beacon, be extremely dangerous.

The public buildings of Plymouth are, the Custom-house, the Exchange, the Athenæum, the Public Library, the Theatre, the Classical and Mathematical School, the Mechanics' Institute, &c. Of the two parish churches, the most ancient is that of St. Andrew, built previously to 1291, a handsome building of the Gothic order; Charles's Church is also a Gothic structure. Among the charitable institutions, which are about thirty, are a work-house, a public dispensary, an eye-infirmmary, a lying-in-charity, a public subscription school, almshouses, Bible societies, &c.

BATH is reckoned the best built town in England, and is a favorite residence of the higher classes, either for recreation or in pursuit of health. It is situated in Somersetshire, at the distance of about 108 miles west from London, and lies in a valley divided by the River Avon. Though of great antiquity, the place came into notice and rose to importance in comparatively modern times, in consequence of possessing certain hot mineral springs, considered to be efficacious in the cure of different complaints. The water issues from the ground at a temperature of 109° to 117° of Fahrenheit, and the quantity discharged daily from the various outlets is 184,320 gallons. The water has been analyzed, and is found to contain sulphate of lime, with considerably lesser proportions of muriate of soda, sulphate of soda, carbonic acid, and carbonate of lime, also a minute portion of silica and oxide of iron. It is stimulating in its properties, and is said to be most successful in cases of palsy, rheumatism, gout, and cutaneous diseases. Over the springs there are elegant pump-rooms and baths. The modern parts of the town are built as streets, crescents, and squares, the houses being of polished sandstone, and in some instances constructed with much taste. Living is expensive in the town during the fashionable season.

**CHELTHENHAM** competes with Bath as a fashionable resort for valetudinarians, real or imaginary. It is situated in Gloucestershire, 88 miles west from London, and  $39\frac{1}{2}$  north-east of Bath. The situation is exceedingly delightful, being remarkably well sheltered by the range of Cotswold Hills on the north-east, and having an exposure to the south and west; it is on this account preferred to all other towns in England by persons from India and other hot climates. Besides being attractive from the salubrity and mildness of its climate, Cheltenham, like Bath, possesses mineral springs reckoned of value for medical purposes, but particularly for invalids with diseased livers. There are several springs, some of which are chalybeate, but their properties and strength are liable to variations. Cheltenham is laid out in a very ornamental manner, with walks and pleasure-grounds, and may be described as perhaps the prettiest town of a small size in England. As in Bath, the expense of living is very great, and, as a consequence, can only be borne by the rich.

**BRIGHTON**, on the coast of Sussex, has risen into importance within the last sixty years, partly in consequence of a beach remarkably well adapted for sea-bathing, and partly from its attracting the regard of George, Prince of Wales, who reared a marine palace here, in a Chinese style. Brighton is an elegant and airy town, with much to render it agreeable as a place of residence for persons in affluent circumstances. The Steyne, a spacious and beautiful lawn, nearly surrounded by houses, and Marine Parade, and several terraces overlooking the sea, furnish delightful walks; while the Baths, Theatre, Assembly Rooms, &c., form additional attractions. There is a regular intercourse with Dieppe by steam-vessels. The Chain-Pier is a remarkable object; it was erected in 1823, at an expense of £30,000, and is 1134 feet long.

Among other towns of this class, we can only notice **HERNE BAY**, **MARGATE** and **RAMSGATE**, situated on the coast of Kent, and which may be considered as the chief places of summer recreation for the inhabitants of London, to and from which steamers ply daily. Herne Bay is a place of recent date, rising into notice, and possessing a pleasant open beach, with space for promenading. Margate is a town of a much earlier date, situated in an open part of a bold line of chalky cliffs, and consists of a confused cluster of streets, with some lines of building of a more airy description in the environs. The town is well supplied with shops, bazaars, and places of amusement during the bathing-season; it also possesses numerous respectable boarding-houses, where, on moderate terms, a person may reside for a short time in a very agreeable manner. At these houses, parties of pleasure are made up for the day, the expense of cars and refreshments during the excursion being defrayed by general contribution. Within a mile or two along the coast is another summer retreat called **BROADSTAIRS**; and beyond it, at an equal distance, is **RAMSGATE**. The chalk cliffs here, which are bold and precipitous, afford a high and salubrious position for the chief part of the town, and beneath there is a fine tract of sandy beach for the use of bathers. The harbour at Ramsgate is one of the best in England, and affords shelter to all kinds of vessels in the Downs.

Of the class of Cathedral Towns, besides those which have been already noticed under other heads, we can here only advert to three of more than usual importance.

**CANTERBURY**, the capital of Kent, is a city of great antiquity, having formed the seat of an ecclesiastical establishment to St. Augustine, the

apostle of Christianity to Britain in the sixth century. In the tenth and eleventh centuries, the town derived great importance from the erection or extension of a cathedral, on a most extensive scale, and of the purest Gothic architecture. In 1162, the archiepiscopal see was bestowed on the famous Becket, who enjoyed it eight years, till the period of his murder in 1170, when his shrine became an object of extraordinary reverence, and brought pilgrims in thousands from all parts of the kingdom. The cathedral, which thus became celebrated, still exists, in a slightly altered and improved condition. Its form is that of a cross, with a central tower of unrivalled workmanship, reaching to a height of 236 feet. The size of the building is immense: the length inside, from east to west, being 514 feet; height of the vaulted roof 80 feet; breadth of the nave and side aisles, 71 feet; and breadth of the cross aisles, from north to south, 124 feet. The interior exhibits a number of interesting monuments of distinguished individuals. Altogether, the cathedral is a work of exceeding grandeur, and, with exquisite beauty of form, possessing a profound historical interest. The town of Canterbury is old, and, like most cathedral towns, is a dull and formal place of residence, with a proportion of genteel inhabitants. It is, however, neat and clean, and is surrounded by a fertile and pleasant tract of country. It has a number of large hotels, and posting-houses, to accommodate the numerous travellers passing between the metropolis and Dover, the chief out-port for France. The distance from London is 56 miles, and from Dover 16. The only object of attraction in the town, besides the cathedral, is a pleasure-ground called the Danejohn, a corruption of the word donjon, such a building having once occupied the spot, in connection with the city walls. The area of the field is laid out with an avenue of trees, and is principally otherwise a grassy esplanade, open freely to all the inhabitants. In 1790, the field was presented by Mr. Alderman James Simmonds, for the use and recreation of the inhabitants in all time coming, an act of generosity deserving the highest commendation.

The ancient city of York, considered as the second in the kingdom in dignity—the chief town of the county, and the cathedral city of the archiepiscopal diocese bearing its name—is situated at the confluence of the Rivers Foss and Ouse, in one of the richest and most extensive plains in England. York, whatever its first rise might be, was a city of the Romans, and occupied by Roman citizens as a *colony*. It was successively the seat of Adrian, Severus, and other emperors: Severus died here in the year 210. At the time of the Norman Conquest, it was a city of considerable consequence and size. This eminence it retained for several centuries, but latterly it has sunk into a mere county and cathedral town, that is to say, a place where a considerable number of legal and ecclesiastical functionaries reside, and from which articles of necessity and luxury are diffused over a neighbouring rural district.

It is entered by four principal gates or bars, has six bridges, a cathedral, twenty-three churches, besides places of worship for various dissenting bodies; a guild-hall, county-hall, and other public buildings. The most remarkable object by many degrees is the Cathedral, or Minster, a most superb specimen of the Gothic architecture, measuring in length  $524\frac{1}{2}$  feet; in breadth across the transepts, 222 feet; the nave being in height 99, and the grand tower 213 feet. The various parts were built at different times between 1227 and 1377. The parts most admired are the east window and the screen dividing the choir from the body of the church. This window consists of upwards of 200 compartments of stained glass, containing repre-

sentations of the Supreme Being, saints, and events recorded in Scripture. The screen is a piece of carved wood-work, in a highly ornamental style. The chapter-house is also much admired: it is a magnificent structure, of an octagonal form, 63 feet in diameter and 68 feet in height. York Minster has, within late years, twice suffered severely from fire. The damage produced on the first occasion, namely, the destruction of the wood-work in the choir, was completely and successfully repaired; that which took place on the second occasion, and which consisted of the destruction of the interior of one of the smaller towers and the roof of the nave, has also been repaired. But it is not the *Old Minster*.

York was at one time a commercial town of some importance, conducting trade by means of the River Ouse, which is navigable for vessels of 120 tons burden. It still possesses a few small manufactures.

WINCHESTER, a town of great antiquity in Hampshire, at the distance of 62 miles from London, is situated in the bottom of a rich grassy vale, through which flows the Itchin, a small river which issues into the sea at Southampton. There was a town here before the Christian era, and it afterwards became the principal city of the Danish, Saxon, and Norman dynasties. It was the scene of Alfred and Canute's glories; and here, with innumerable princes, bishops, and abbots, they lie interred. Till the revolution, it continued a chief place of residence of the royal family; a palace built by the Stuarts is now used as a barrack for soldiers. In the reign of Edward III. (1366,) Winchester became the episcopal see of the celebrated William of Wykeham, who greatly improved the cathedral, and instituted a college for the education of youth. The cathedral has undergone various mutations; but being lately repaired and cleaned, is now one of the finest structures of the kind in Britain. The splendid mausoleum of William of Wykeham, in one of its aisles, is an object of great interest. At a short distance from the cathedral are placed the venerable buildings composing the College of Wykeham, at which a number of young gentlemen are educated and prepared for the university. Another highly interesting object of antiquity is the Hospital of St. Cross, situated about a mile down the Itchin. Founded by Henry de Blois, Bishop of Winchester, and brother of King Stephen, in 1136, St. Cross is the most perfect specimen remaining in England of the conventual establishments of the middle ages, and affords a residence and means of subsistence to thirteen indigent old men. Winchester is composed of a variety of old streets, and seems among the least improved towns in England. Latterly it has been inspired with a little animation, by becoming a station on the line of the London and Southampton Railway.

The early history of England, like that of all nations, is shrouded in uncertainty. Before the invasion of Julius Cæsar, in 55 B. C., little was known of the inhabitants, who were called Britons, from the word *brit*, signifying *painted*. They were then ferocious and warlike, clad in skins and armed with clubs, and even the iron-breasted Romans quailed at first before the horrid front which the infuriated natives presented to their invaders. The Romans possessed Briton 500 years, during which time many improvements were introduced, and the manners of the people became assimilated to those of their conquerors. In the fifth century the Roman legions quitted Britain to defend their own territories from the Vandals and Goths; and no sooner were they gone than the Scots made a descent on the south, to repel whom the Saxons and Angles were invited into the country.



The Scots were defeated, indeed, but the foreigners had made themselves masters of the kingdom, and gave it the name of Anglia or England. The Saxon Heptarchy was now formed, which comprised the seven kingdoms —of Kent, which was founded in 454, and lasted until 823;) East Saxony, (527–827;) Northumberland, (547–827;) Mercia, (585–827;) East Anglia, (575–792;) West Saxony, (519–828; and South Saxony, (423–685.) These several kingdoms, at the dates specified, merged into those of their more powerful neighbors, and after a brief existence gradually amalgamated, and finally, under Egbert, became one consolidated monarchy. England now suffered invasions by the Danes, who several times became masters of the kingdom, but they were finally expelled in 1041, and the Saxon government restored. In 1066 the Normans, under William the Conqueror, obtained possession, and by this circumstance the whole political and moral condition of the people was materially changed. Feudalism was introduced, and the whole land parcelled out to the followers of the Norman adventurer. To the time of John, the history of England is little else than a recital of kingly acts for the benefit of kings. The barons now revolted, and the “Magna Charta” was wrested from the reluctant monarch. Thus was given the first impulse to liberty, and the foundation undesignedly laid for the elevation of the people. The Reformation was the next great event that had any considerable effect on the people’s rights. This commenced with Henry the Eighth, and was consummated by the elevation to the throne of Elizabeth. On the death of Elizabeth the English and Scottish crowns were united in James I. The Protectorate succeeded the decapitation of Charles I., and was soon succeeded by the Restoration. The principles involved in the controversies which led to these great events, enlightened the people to their own condition, and gradually developed their intellectual and moral capacities. They by this time understood alike their rights as subjects and the duties of the monarch; and when James II. attempted to rule absolutely, and alter the religion of the country, a bloodless revolution forced him from the throne, and set upon it his son-in-law William, an avowed Protestant. The liberties of the people were confirmed by the Bill of Rights, the sequel to the Magna Charta.

The succession of the House of Hanover took place in the person of George the First. England now progressed rapidly in the arts and manufactures, and commercial relations were established with all nations. In 1801 Ireland was united with Great Britain. Since this period no great domestic event has occurred, but the United Kingdoms have gone on prospering and developing themselves, and though not altogether agreeing among themselves, have still preserved sufficient unity to build up one of the mightiest and most enlightened kingdoms of ancient or modern times.

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## SCOTLAND.

SCOTLAND, the northern division of Great Britain, and formerly in itself a kingdom, consists of all the mainland and islands between the latitudes of  $54^{\circ} 41'$  and  $60^{\circ} 49' N.$ , (the mainland extending only to  $58^{\circ} 41'$ ), and between the longitudes  $1^{\circ} 43'$  and  $8^{\circ} 55' W.$ , (the main extending only to  $5^{\circ} 38' W.$ ) It is separated from England by the Cheviot Hills and a series of rivers. The greatest length of the mainland is 280 miles, from the Mull of Galloway to Dunnet’s Head; the breadth is very variable, the greatest being 146 miles, from Buchan-ness to the westernmost point of Ross-shire;

but the country is so indented with firths, locks and inlets, that there is actually no place in Scotland more than 40 miles inland. The area of the land may approximate 25,500, and the islands, about 4,000 square miles, being a total of 29,500.

The general aspect of Scotland is highly varied and picturesque in its outlines. The level of England loses its characteristics on proceeding northward; and is succeeded by a succession of lofty and rugged mountains, which in a great measure constitute the features of the Scotch landscape. The mainland may be described under three general divisions, viz: the southern, middle and northern, each possessing a peculiar physical conformation. The southern division lies contiguous to the north of England, and extends north to the Forth and the Clyde; the middle division extends hence to Moray Firth and the Glen-more-nan-Albin, or Great Valley of Scotland, which stretches in a south-western direction through the middle of Inverness-shire to the opposite sea; the third, or northern division, lies to the north and north-west of Glenmore and Moray Firth.

The central portion of the southern division is occupied by the South Highlands, a long range of mountains, which extends westward from the Cheviots, and forms the watershed, between the rivers which run to the Irish Sea, and those emptying into the Firth the Clyde and the Tweed. To the north of these mountains the vallies called Tweeddale and Clydesdale stretch from sea to sea—the watershed between them being formed by a spur of the South Highlands, in the very centre of the region. The northern border of these great vallies is formed by the Lammer-muir and Moorfoot Hills, and to the west of these by a ridge of high ground, which lies along the borders of Linlithgowshire and Lanarkshire. From the Campsie Hills eastward, the plain of Sterling, and the low country of Lothian, stretch in an easterly direction along the southern shore of the Firth of Forth. A similar belt of low country to the west of the central chain, and comprising the lowlands of Ayrshire, extends along the east side of the Firth of Clyde. Along the southern coast a series of vallies occurs, named from their respective rivers, Eskdale, Annandale, Nithsdale, and Glenkens, and the comparatively level county of Wigton. The mountains of Roxburgh, Peebles, Selkirk, and Dumfries, have generally sloping acclivities, with flattish rounded tops, covered with grass and herbage, and affording excellent pasturage for large flocks of sheep. The mountains of Galloway and Ayr are more rugged and heathy, but they have few of the features which form the bold precipitous character of the Northern Highlands.

The Grampian and West Highland mountains occupy the central and western portions of the middle division, which are remarkable for their sterility and desolate aspect, and are in some parts extremely precipitous and rocky. Their summits are frequently rounded, and sometimes nearly flat, and covered with blocks of stone, mixed with grit and sand, except where the granite rocks present the singular appearance of large tabular pinnacles. The lower parts of them are covered with heath growing out of the peat-earth, mixed with rock and gravel, comparatively few of them being clothed with green herbage. The mountains are frequently separated by deep ravines and glens, through which lie the natural passes of the country. These admit of easy defence, and until lately, roads having been cut through them, they were impassable by any but the natives.

Along the western side of the Grampians, a wide valley extends from Dumbartonshire to Kincardineshire, bearing in its eastern part the name of Strathmore, (i. e. Great Valley.) This valley is interrupted only in two

places, by a ridge which joins the Grampians, and the Ochil Hills, and by another ridge which separates Loch Lomond from the valley of the Forth—with these exceptions, no part of the valley is more than 200 feet above the level of the sea. The southern border of Strathmore is formed by the Sidlaw, Ochil, and Campsie Hills, to the south-east of which lie the carse or plain of Stirling, the peninsula of Fife, the carse of Gowrie, and the low maritime districts of Forfarshire. To the north lie the plain of Moray, and the vallies of the Spey, Findhorn, Nairn and Spean. The GLEN-MORE-NAN-ALBIN is a long valley, which extends from Inverness to Fort William, and contains three long narrow lakes, named Ness, Oich, and Lochy, which are connected with each other, and with the seas on the east and west by the Caledonian Canal.

The country to the north and west of the Glen is a wild, barren, and desolate region of mountains, vallies, lakes, lochs and rivulets; but containing also some narrow strips of cultivated land on the eastern sea-coast, and along the margins of its numerous lakes and rivers. Caithness, however, is generally a flat county, but consists of a great extent of moorland, and is only partially capable of cultivation.

The Western Islands or Hebrides, partake very much of the character of the neighbouring mainland. The Orkney group is generally hilly and rocky, with large tracts of barren sands. In the interior of the Shetlands the soil in general consists of moor and bog, with high mountains; but near the coast there are some level parts, which are pleasant, and produce medium crops, and afford good pasturage.

Scotland, generally speaking, is so rugged and sterile that it is doubtful if so much as one third of its surface is arable. With the exception, indeed, of a few tracts of rich alluvial soil, it contains no extensive vales; the surface of the country, even where most level, being considerably diversified by hill and dale. Even the finest parts of the low country, though rich and fertile, seldom equal the luxuriance of the southern landscape. Plantations are not spread generally over the country, but are mostly confined to the vicinity of the great mansions, while many districts are entirely destitute of wood. Notwithstanding these disadvantages, the Scottish landscape is singularly picturesque and expressive, and instead of the tameness and monotony which characterize many parts of England, the eye of the traveller is gratified by an endless variety of scene.

From the peculiar conformation of this portion of Great Britain, gulfs, bays, and shoals are very numerous; but we must confine our notice to the most prominent. The FIRTH OF FORTH is a large estuary on the east coast, between Fife and Lothian, extending above fifty miles inland; it is about fifteen miles wide at its mouth, opposite Edinburgh about five or six miles, and at Queensferry only about two miles; but further up for several miles, it widens to four or five, gradually contracting again till at Alloa, where it may be said to terminate, it is only 1500 feet across. There is good anchorage in many parts of this magnificent estuary, particularly in Leith Roads, under the shelter of Inchkeith; in Brunt Island Roads, and St. Margaret's Hope, above Queensferry; but there is not in its whole extent one good harbor. The shores are low, in some parts rocky, and everywhere of the greatest beauty. The view from Arthur's Seat, or the Calton Hill, at Edinburgh, is reckoned not much inferior in beauty and interest to the Bays of Naples, Bombay, and Rio Janeiro. Along the coast of the Firth are numerous indents, some of which are locally denominated as bays: the principal of these are Aberlady and Musselburgh bays, on the Lothian

coast, and Largo Bay, in Fife. Belhaven Bay is situated immediately west of Dunbar. The FIRTH OF TAY, between Fife and Forfar, is above twenty miles long, and about two broad. Its entrance is obstructed by sand-banks, but from Button-ness to Dundee it is navigable for ships of 500 tons, and at high water vessels of 100 tons can reach Perth, twenty miles further up. St. Andrew's Bay is south of the Firth of Tay. MORAY, or MURRAY FIRTH, is a wide gulf between Moray on the south, and the coast of Ross and Cromarty on the north-west. It terminates westerly on Beaully Firth, which forms the entrance of the Caledonian Canal. Ranging eastward, between Moray Firth and Kinnard Head, are the small bays of Brough Head Bay, Spey Bay, and Aberdour Bay. CROMARTY FIRTH is about a mile wide at its entrance, and extends north-west to Dingwall, about seventeen miles, forming the finest harbor on the east coast of Great Britain. At its mouth it has from twenty-two to thirty fathoms water, the depth within varying from fifteen to seven fathoms. Owing, however, to the barrenness of the country, and the want of trade and population, this fine harbor is comparatively useless. DORNOCH FIRTH lies north of Moray Firth, and is an extensive expanse of water, far reaching inland. Wick Bay, Ries or Sinclair Bay, and Triswick Bay, all lie on the east coast of Caithness. On the north coast are—Thurso Bay; PENTLAND FIRTH, a strait between the mainland and the Orkney Isles, offering difficult and dangerous navigation, on account of the strong tides and currents that rush through it; the Kyle of Tongue; and Loch Eriboll, on the coast of Sutherland. Between the Orkney and Shetland Isles, Fair Island divides the intervening channel into Sumburgh Passage on the north, and Earl Bothwell's Passage on the south. Important passages and bays in the neighbourhood of these islands are numerous, but cannot be here enumerated. The Passage of Pomona separates the island of Pomona and Hoy from a shoal to the west, having Sule Skerry and the Stack (rock) at its northern, and the Nun Rock at its southern extremity. The Nun Passage is situated to the south of Nun Rock, and a little further to the south-west, opposite the Butt of Lewis, the Passage of Lewis and Bara leads to the Great Minch, or Firth of Lewis, and the Little Minch, a sea or wide strait, between the Long Island and the coasts of Skye, Ross, and Sutherland. Kyle, or Sound of Sleat, lies between Skye and the mainland; the Sound of Mull, between Mull and Morvern; the Sound of Jura, between Jura and Knapdale; the Sound of Islay, between Islay and Jura; Kilbrannan Sound, between Cantire and Arran, and the Kyles of Bute, between Bute and Cowall.

Of the numerous Lochs which are presented on the west coast, only those of Linnhe, Eil, Fine, and Ryan, are of any great importance. The two first form the western entrance to the Caledonian Canal, extending thirty-four miles inland, with deep water throughout. LOCH FINE extends with a circular sweep about forty miles into Argyle, with a width gradually contracting, of seven miles at its mouth. At Inverary, within seven miles of its inland extremity, the depth is sixty fathoms. LOCH RYAN is also a fine sheet of water, with good anchorage, and depth sufficient for the largest ships. The FIRTH OF CLYDE opens northward, between the isles of Arran and Bute on the west, and Ayrshire on the east, with a width of fifteen miles, gradually contracting until it meets the river of the same name not many miles below Glasgow. Two beautiful expanses of water, called LOCH LONG, of which Loch Goil is a branch, and the GARE LOCH are arms of this Firth, branching from its north side; the water of both is very deep, and in the main channel of the Firth itself, within a short distance of

Greenock, there are twenty-three fathoms at ebb tide; but higher up, opposite Port Glasgow to Dumbarton, the bed of the Firth is almost filled up by a sand-bank extending from the north shore, and leaving the only navigable channel upon the south side. **LAMLASH BAY**, on the east side of Arran, is completely land-locked, and protected from easterly gales by the island of Lamlash. On the south coast are Luce Bay and Wigton Bay, in Wigtonshire; Kirkcudbright Bay, in Galloway; and the Solway Firth, which in part divides Scotland from England.

The most remarkable capes and headlands in Scotland are St. Abb's Head, in Berwick, a high and bold promontory; Barn-ness, Whitbury-ness, and Gullan-ness, in Haddington; Fife-ness; \*Button-ness, at the mouth of the Tay; Red-Head in Forfar; Jod-Head, Garron Point, and Finnan-ness in Kincardine; \*Girdle-ness, at the mouth of the Dee; Rattray Point, Cairnbulg Head, \*Kinnaird Head, and \*Buchan-ness, in Aberdeen; Troup Head, and Knock Head, in Banff; Burgh Head, in Moray; \*Tarbet-ness, in Cromarty; Ord of Caithness, Clyth-ness, Noss Head, Duncansbay Head, \*Dunnet Head, and Holburn Head, in Caithness; Stark Point, (Island of Sanda,) in Orkney; \*Sumburg Head, (Island of Mainland,) in Shetland; Strathy Head, Whiten Head, Far-out Head, \*Cape Wrath, and Stour Head, in Sutherland; More Head, in Cromarty; Udrigal Head, and Rhu-rea-head, in Ross; Butt of Lewis, and \*Barra Head, (Long Island,) Aird, Unish Point, Copnahow Head, and Sleat Point, (Isle of Skye,) in Inverness; Point of Ardnamurchan, and \*Mull of Cantire, Lamont Point, \*Toward Point, Rinns of Islay, and Mull of Kinloch, (Isle of Islay,) in Argyle; Turnberry Head, and Bannan Head, in Ayr; \*Clough Point, in Renfrew, Kirkholm Point, \*Corsill Point, \*Mull of Galloway, Burrow Head, in Wigton; Ross Head, Rayberry Head, and \*Southernness, in Kirkcudbright.

An immense number of islands, rocks, and sandbanks line the coasts of Scotland, and extend northward to the sixty-first degree of north latitude. Some of these are of considerable extent, though few are of much value. For the convenience of description we will arrange them into four classes. 1. Those on the east coast, generally small, and in some instances mere rocks; 2. The Orkney and Shetland Islands, on the north; 3. The Hebrides, Hebudæ, or Western Islands; and 4. The Islands of the Firth of Clyde.

The islands on the east coast are \*Inchcolm, Inchgarvey, Cramond, Mickry, Craigleith, Lamb, Fidra, Eyebroughy, or Ibris, Bass Rock, and \*Isle of May, all small islands in the Firth of Forth. The Bass is a basaltic rock, rising almost perpendicularly from the sea 600 feet, and is the only place on the coast resorted to by the gannet or solan goose. **CAR-ROCK**, (beacon) is  $1\frac{1}{2}$  miles north-east of Fife-ness. \***BELL ROCK** is 12 miles due east of Button-ness, and is a dangerous ledge about 850 yards in length, and about 100 in breadth. **MAVIS BANK** is a sand-bank 30 miles east of the Bell Rock; **MURRAY**, a sand-bank, 10 miles east of Montrose; and **OUTER MONTROSE PITS**, a shoal 80 miles farther east. The **LONG FORTIES** is a shoal running nearly parallel to the coast, from the inner edge of Murray Bank to a point about 70 miles off Kinnaird Head, and enclosing the **BUCHAN DEEP** on the east, and **DUTCH BANK**, the inner margin of which is about 11 miles distant from the northern portion of Long Forties. \***PENTLAND SKERRIES** are at the eastern entrance of the Pentland Firth. **STROMA ISLE** is four miles north-west of Duncansby Head.

The **ORKNEY** and **SHETLAND ISLANDS** are two distinct groups to the north-

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\* The site of a lighthouse.

east of Caithness. The principal of the ORKNEYS are Pomona or Mainland, a large island; Hoy, South Ronaldsha, North Ronaldsha, Sanda, Stronsa, Edo, Westra, Papa-Westra, Rousa, Egilsha, Jara, Shapinsha, Copinsha, Barra, Grømsay, Scalpa, and Swona. The total number is estimated at 67, of which about 40 are uninhabited. They contain about 281,600 acres. The SHETLAND or ZETLAND (properly Yetland or Hialtland) ISLES are separated from the Orkneys by a channel 38 miles across, in the middle of which is Fair Isle. Including islets and holms, they are supposed to exceed 100 in number; of which only 30 or 40 are inhabited. MAINLAND is 60 miles long, but various and unequal in breadth. The other principal islands are—Yell, Uist, Whalsay, Bressa, Noss, Mousa, Foula, Fetta, &c. Their extent is estimated at 563,200 acres. The appearance of both groups is much similar, but the Shetland Islands are the more rugged, wet, and barren of the two. They are generally fenced, particularly on the west, with high, dark, precipitous cliffs, against which the sea dashes with great fury. Dreary heathy wastes, interspersed with rocks, varied sometimes with swamps and lakes, and in a few places with beds of moveable sands, characterize their surface. In some parts, however, in the Orkneys particularly, the land is abundantly fertile, producing good crops of corn and luxuriant herbage. The climate is very moist, but equable. In the extreme north of the Shetlands summer and winter divide the year, during the first of which the sun is constantly above the horizon, and during the latter the luminary is never seen, but the bright corruscations of the aurora borealis tend to supply the dreary season with a fitful light.

The HEBRIDES, or WESTERN ISLANDS, may be divided, as indeed they are naturally, into two groups—the outer and the inner. The latter cluster on the mainland, and are respectively called Skye, Raasa, Rona, Canna, Rum, Eig, in Inverness-shire; and Mull, Staffa, Iona or I-colin-Kill, Cole, Tiree, \*Skerryvore, Muck, \*Lismore, Scarba, Colonsay, Oronsay, Ila, Jura, and Gigha, in Argyleshire. The Outer Hebrides are separated from the Inner by a wide channel, the Minsh, and form one continuous group of about 140 miles in length, so close together that they are generally considered as one, and named the Long-Island. The principal are Lewis and Harris, \*Island Glass, Bernera, North Uist, South Uist, Benbecula, Barra, and Oatersay. Some of the islands, particularly Skye, Mull, Jura, and Harris, are high, rugged and mountainous. In many places, particularly in Long-Island, the country consists of extensive tracts of moss and moor, but in most of the islands there is a considerable extent of hill pasture.

The ISLANDS IN THE FIRTH OF CLYDE, are Bute, Arran, \*Pladda, Great Cumbræ, \*Little Cumbræ, and Ailsa. BUTE is separated from the main land by the Kyles of Bute, and measures 18 miles in length by five miles in breadth. It is bleak and mountainous in the north, but towards the south it consists of green, fertile eminences or low hills, either affording good pasture, or capable of producing excellent crops of barley, oats, &c. A picturesque beauty and salubrity of climate are its distinguishing characteristics. ARRAN is a larger island, north of Bute, oval in shape, and about 24 by 14 miles in length and breadth. It is a mass of peaty mountains, some exceeding 3,000 feet. The CUMBRÆS are two small islands in the gorge of the Firth, between Bute and the coast. Their surface is hilly and verdant, but bare. AILSA-CRAIG, 15 miles from the coast of Ayrshire, is an insulated hill, about two miles in circumference, and about 1,000 feet above the sea. For about 400 feet up it is clifty and precipitous, but the conical top is covered with a luxuriant crop of heath, grass, and other

plants, which supply feed for an enormous number of goats, rabbits, &c. The cliffs all round are constantly covered with vast flocks of Solan geese, puffins, and gannets. It belongs to the Marquis of Ailsa, who draws from it a rent of £30 sterling a year.

The most important of the Scottish rivers are the Forth, Clyde, Tay, Tweed, and Spey. The **FORTH** rises on the east side of Ben Lomond, and runs in an easterly winding direction until it unites with the Frith of the same name, at Alloa. The country on its banks is throughout low, flat, and rich. It is navigable for small vessels to Stirling, but is chiefly navigated by steamboats. Ships of 300 tons reach Alloa. The **TEITH** drains the lochs Katterin, Vennachar, Voil, Lubnaig, &c., and joins the river above Stirling, with a body of water larger than its own. Its other affluents are the Allen from Perthshire, and the Black Devon and South Devon from Clackmannan. The **CLYDE** rises in the centre of the south highlands, not far from the sources of the Tweed and the Annan, and flows in a south-western direction past Glasgow, to the Forth. Near Lanark it is precipitated over falls of 186 feet within six miles. Its affluents are: the Avon, the Douglas, the Mouse, the Medwin, the Nethan, the Calder, and Kelvin. The Clyde has been rendered navigable up to Glasgow, having been made 13 feet deep to that port. The trade upon it is very extensive, and it is a crowded thoroughfare for boats and steamships. The **TAY** is the largest river in Scotland, rising on the western border of Perthshire, and forms in its course Loch Tay, whence it flows south-east to the Firth, which it joins below Perth. Its principal tributaries are: the Dochart, Lochy, Lyon, Tummel, Bran, Isla, Airdle, Almond, and Earn. On the east side of Erickstane Hill the **TWEED** takes its rise, and after flowing northward to Peebles, turns towards the east, and flows into the German Ocean at Berwick, forming for the last 16 miles of its course the boundary between Scotland and England. The rivers flowing into the Tweed, and which are its tributaries, are: the Lyne, Manor, Megget, Eddlestone, Quairs, in Peebles-shire; the Gala, Ettrick, and Yarrow, from Selkirk; the Teviot, with several tributaries from Roxburg; the Leader, Eden, Leet, Whiteadder, and Blackadder, from Berwickshire, and the Till and Bowmont, from Northumberland. The **SPEY** issues from Loch-Spey, elevated 1,280 feet above the sea, and flows in a north-easterly direction into Moray Firth. Besides being one of the largest rivers in Scotland, it is also the most rapid.

The principal rivers of a minor importance to those above referred to are: the Eye, in Berwickshire; the Tyne, North Esk, South Esk, Leith, Almond, and Avon, in Lothian; the Carron, Endrick, Blane, and Ban-nockburn, in Stirling; the Torry, Dour, Leven, and Eden, in Fife-shire; the Digby, Elliot, Brothock, Lunan, and South Esk, in Forfar; the North Esk, between Forfar and Kincardine; the Dee, Don, Wry, Ythan, and Ugie, in Aberdeen; the Deveron, in Banff; the Lossie and Findhorn, in Moray; the Nairn; the Ness and Beauily, in Inverness; the Connan, Garve, Carron, Orkell, &c., in Ross-shire; the Shin, Fleet, Brora, Helmsdale, and Naver, in Sutherland; the Langwall, Berrydale, Wick, Thurso, and Forss, in Caithness; the Leven, in Dumbarton. The Black Cart, White Cart, and Griffe, in Renfrew; the Irvine, Ayr, Doon, Gervan, Stinch, and Lugar, in Ayrshire; the Luce, in Wigton; the Ken and Dee, in Kirkcudbright; the Nith, Cluden, Annan, Dryfe, Milk, Esk, Kirtle, and Sark, in Dumfries; and the Lidd or Liddel, an affluent of the Esk, in Roxburgh.

Lakes or Lochs are very numerous in Scotland, many of them are of considerable size, and all celebrated for their picturesque beauty. They are chiefly among the mountains. The largest of these is **LOCH LOMOND**, between Dumbartonshire and Stirlingshire. It is 24 miles long and  $7\frac{1}{2}$  in its greatest width, and covers an area of 23,000 acres, being the largest in Great Britain. The average depth is 20 fathoms, but in some places it is 80 and even 120 fathoms. Numerous small, beautiful, and densely-wooded islets stud its surface, and on its north-east bank Ben Lomond rises precipitously to the height of 3,095 feet. This lake seems formerly to have been called Loch Leven (Smooth Lake,) and the river which carries its surplus waters to the tide is still called by that name. The other lakes of Scotland are—Ard, and several others drained by the Forth; Katterin, Achray, Vennacher, Voil, and Lubnaig, drained by the Teith; Earn; Tay; Lydoch, Eroch, Ericht, Rannock, Tummel, and Garry, drained by the Tummel; Cluny; and Quiech. In Forfarshire are Loch Lee and the Loch of Forfar; in Inverness, Ness,—22 miles long,—Oich and Garry drained by the river Ness; Laggan, Ouchan, and Treag, drained by the Spean; Lochy and Arkeig drained by the Lochy; Ruthven, Duntalleak, and Ashley; in Ross-shire are Maree, Fuir, Shallag, Fannick, Rusk, Luichart, Monar, Glas, Moir and Slin; in Sutherland, Shin, Nacer, Furan, Baden, Loyal, and More; in Argyle, Awe and Avich, Shiell and Eck; in Renfrew, Winnock, Queenside, Libo, Shaw's Water, &c.; in Ayr, Doon; in Galloway, Ken; in Dumfries, Skene, at the head of Annandale, 1,800 feet above the sea, and emitting its waters by a lofty cataract called the Grey Mare's Tail; in Selkirk, St. Mary's, and the Loch of the Lows, both drained by the Yarrow; in Fife, Orr, Fitty, Gilly, and Kilconquhar, and the Loch of Lindores; and in Kinross, Loch Leven, and Loch Glow, both drained by the Leven. Of these but five have an area of more than 20 square miles.

Scotland, as before observed, is exceedingly mountainous. The mountains of the northern highlands extend on the west southwards from Cape Wrath to the Caledonian Canal, which separates them from the chain of the Grampians. They cover the whole of the western portion of the counties of Sutherland, Ross, and Inverness, and send out branches to the east, particularly in the two latter counties, in which also are the loftiest summits. The country included between Lochbroom and Cape Wrath—probably one of the most savage, rocky and barren tracts in Scotland—has no very high hills, although for a considerable distance inland it is in general elevated 1,000 feet above the sea. The highest culminations of this range are Ben Attow, 4,000 feet; Ben Nevis, 4,373 feet, Ben Wyvis, 3,720 feet, Ben Dearg, 3,551 feet, &c.

The **GRAMPIANS**, which divide the Highlands from the Lowlands of Scotland, commence at Loch Etive in Argyleshire, and after passing in a waving line through Stirling, Perth, Aberdeen, and Kincardine, terminate between Stonehaven and the mouth of the Dee. The loftiest summits are in the east. Several ranges of no very great elevation are detached from the northern face of the Grampians. The highest summits of these mountains are:—Ben Lawers, 3,945 feet, Ben Lui, 3,651 feet, Ben Dearg, 3,690 feet, Cairntoul, 4,245 feet, Ben Macdui, 4,390, &c. Detached summits, mostly granitic, are sprinkled over the whole of Aberdeenshire.

The ranges intermediate between the Grampians and the northern continuation of the Cheviots, occupying a portion of the extensive plain, consist of two long and elevated ranges of trap-rocks, the one situated in part to the north of the Forth and Clyde, and the other to the south of the former



river. The northern range commences on the east, a little south of Montrose, and extends south-west as far as Dumbarton. It is known in its several parts by the local names of the Sidlaw Hills, the Ochill Hills, the Campsie Hills, and Kilpatrick Hills. The greatest elevations in this range are:—Ben Clack, 2,359 feet, and a number of others varying from 632 to 1,876 feet in elevation.

The range of the CHEVIOTS, properly so called, are partly in Scotland and partly in England, and divide the countries. A branch proceeds northward, and there are a number of detached elevations belonging to this series of mountains. The greatest heights are:—Broad Law, 2,741 feet, Cheviot in Northumberland, 2,658 feet; and others from 370 to 2,500 feet above the level of the sea.

These several ranges form the great features of the country, and are the watersheds from which proceed the rivers flowing in every direction. They are chiefly covered with heath, but as heretofore stated, in a number of cases they are clothed in grasses, which feed numerous herds of cattle and sheep, contributing largely to the wealth of the country.

The natural scenery of Scotland is described by Sir Walter Scott as ‘wondering scene of mountains, rocks, and woods.’—

“Crag, knolls and mounds, confusedly hurl’d,  
The fragments of an earlier world.”

LADY OF THE LAKE.

and certainly never such a confusion of elements has been elsewhere found. It had been our intention to have traversed over the country, and led the reader through its glens and mountains, by loch and stream, all teeming with traditional memories of days long passed; but the task would be endless, and others have described with a living pen the features of every locality, and every one has read their stories. Where Scott has trod it is vain to follow; and we content ourselves with a short description of one or two of the most prominent scenes of this highly romantic and picturesque country.

We will pass over the grand scenery of the mainland, and take an excursion to the WESTERN ISLANDS. The Western Islands, says Chambers, (*Information for the People*, vol. ii. p. 651,) are generally bleak, and rugged in surface, and occupied by a very poor class of tenantry. In some of them, particularly in Skye and Eigg, the scenery attains to a savage grandeur. It is not possible here to present a particular description of any besides the Isle of *Staffa*, so remarkable for its basaltic structure. It is about a mile and a half in circumference, and bears no human habitation, its only useful tenants being a small herd of black cattle. At the point of greatest elevation, towards the south-west, this island is 144 feet high. On the north-east it presents a face of somewhat less height, composed of basaltic columns, and penetrated by several caves, of various sizes, into which the sea occasionally breaks with the report of thunder. This face, according to Dr. Macculloch, is formed of three distinct beds of rock, of unequal thickness, inclined towards the east in an angle of about nine degrees: the lowest is a rude trap tufa; the middle one is divided into columns placed vertically to the planes of the lowest bed; and the uppermost is an irregular mixture of small columns and shapeless rock—the whole being partially covered by a fine verdure. The central columnar part having in some places given way, is the occasion of the numerous caves by which the island seems perforated.

At the north-east point of the island, the dipping of the rocks is so low as to afford a safe landing-place at any time of the tide. Proceeding thence,

the visiter is conducted along the north-east face, and is introduced to *Clamshell* (Scallop) *Cave*, where a curious confusion in the columnar structure is observable. The columns on one side are bent, so as to form a series of ribs not unlike the inside view of the timbers of a ship; while the opposite wall is formed by the ends of columns, bearing a general resemblance to the surface of a honey-comb. This cave is 30 feet in height, and 16 or 18 feet in breadth at the entrance; its length being 130 feet, and the breadth contracting to the termination. Next occurs the noted rock, *Buachaille* (the herdsman,) a conoidal pile of columns, about 30 feet high, lying on a bed of curved horizontal ones, visible only at low water. There is here an extensive surface, resembling that of the Giant's Causeway, and composed of the broken ends of pillars once continuous to the top of the cliff. The colonnade is now for some distance upright and very grand, till the visitor reaches the *Uaimh Binn* (Musical Cave,) usually called *Fingal's Cave*, by far the most impressive and interesting object in the island. It opens from the sea with a breadth of 42 feet, a height of 66 feet above the water at mean tide, the pillar on one side being 36 feet high, and that on the other 18. The depth of the recess is 227 feet, and the breadth at the inner termination 22. The sides within are columnar throughout; the columns being broken and grouped in many different ways, so as to catch a variety of direct and reflected tints, mixed with secondary shadows and deep invisible recesses. As the sea never ebbs entirely out, the only floor of this beautiful cave is the fine green water, reflecting from its white bottom tints which vary and harmonize the darker tones of the rock, and often throwing on the columns flickering lights, which its undulations catch from the rays of the sun without.

There are in Scotland, and particularly in the district between the Firth of Tay and Moray Firth, numerous mounds, upright slab stones, and carved stones, which are supposed to have been raised as monuments over slain warriors, by the early inhabitants of the country, or by the Danes or other northern nations who occasionally invaded it in remote times. The most remarkable examples of mounds are two at Dunnipace, on the Carron, in Stirlingshire, and one at Fettercairn, in Kincardineshire.

A distinct class of mounds, called *moot* or *moat hills*, are common in the south-western and several other districts. They are generally of a square form, with a flat top. It is believed that they served as places for the administration of justice in rude ages.

Of the carved stones, a remarkable example exists at Forres. It contains figures of men and animals, in various compartments. There is another very entire and curious specimen at Aberlemno in Forfarshire. A third at Meigle, is remarkable as containing a representation of one of the war-chariots used by the original inhabitants of the country.

In the north of Scotland, and in Orkney, there are some surviving examples of a very remarkable class of early buildings, to which the common people now give the name of *Picts' Houses*, as supposing them to have been built by the Picts. They are generally round buildings, of no great height, with round vaulted tops, altogether built of courses of dressed stone without mortar, and containing for the most part one central chamber, and several long narrow recesses in the thickness of the wall.

Circular mounds, the remains of British and Danish camps, are common on the tops of the Scottish hills, having probably been the places to which the early people retired with their flocks in times of danger. On several hills, particularly in Perthshire and Inverness-shire, there are remains of

walls, presenting appearances as if the stony materials had been artificially vitrified. It is not yet clearly ascertained whether these *vitrified forts*, as they are called, were works of our Caledonian ancestors, or the effect of accident, though the former is certainly the more likely supposition.

The weapons used by the aboriginal people are often found, consisting of stone axes, arrow-heads of flint, &c. Necklaces, bracelets, and other ornaments used by them, barbarous in style, but generally of gold, are also often found. In various districts, Druidical circles still exist in a tolerably entire state; but none on so large or regular a scale as those of Stonehenge and Abury.

There are remains of roads and camps formed by the Romans in their hesitating and imperfect attempts to subdue North Britain; and of the wall built under the Emperor Antoninus, between the Firths of Forth and Clyde, with forts at regular intervals, it is still possible to discern a few traces.

The next class of antique objects are the remains of the Gothic fanes, reared on account of religion during the period when the Romish church was triumphant. These are everywhere very numerous, but in few cases tolerably entire. Excepting two cathedrals, those of Glasgow and Kirkwall (in Orkney,) all of that class of structures are in ruins. The abbeyes, priories, and other conventual and collegiate establishments, are in every instance gone to decay. Melrose Abbey, the Cathedral of Elgin, and the Collegiate Church of Roslin, are the most beautiful of these ruinous buildings.

Numerous specimens of the towers and castles occupied by men of note in the middle ages, still exist, though mostly in a decayed state. Those which indicate the greatest strength and consequence are—*Lochmaben Castle*, the residence of the Bruces, Lords of Annandale; *Hermitage* (Roxburghshire,) which belonged to a powerful noble named Lord Soulis; *Douglas*, the residence of the Earls of Douglas; *Turnberry* (Ayrshire,) the residence of the Earls of Carrick; *Bothwell*, another stronghold of the Douglasses; *Tantallon* (Haddingtonshire,) the residence of the Earls of Angus, a branch of the Douglas family; *Dunnottur* (Kincardineshire,) the seat of the Earls Mareschal; and *Doune* (Perthshire,) the stronghold of Robert, Earl of Fife, brother of Robert III., and governor of Scotland. Four places of strength, *Edinburgh*, *Stirling*, *Dunbarton*, and *Blackness Castles*, are still kept in repair at the public expense, and serve as barracks for foot soldiers.

The mansions of the nobility and gentry of Scotland do not differ in any important respect from similar classes of structures in England. The “hall” is, however, completely wanting in Scotland, and there are comparatively few specimens of the Elizabethan style. Turbulent times being more recent in Scottish than in English history, the chief mansions of an unfortified character in the northern kingdom, are not of earlier date than the reign of Charles II., and most of them are much later. In many instances, the whole or part of the original castellated building which stood on the same site are retained.

Before the reign of James III. (1460-1488,) there seems to have been no mansion besides the regular tower, with its surrounding inferior buildings, and external wall or barmkyne. In that, and one or two of the ensuing reigns, a few mansions were built, in an ornamental style, having, for instance, an elegant front looking inwards to a quadrangular court; yet, in these instances, the outside of the building was still a plain and almost dead wall, calculated for defence. *Crichton Castle* (Edinburghshire,) and *Linlithgow Palace*, are examples. In the reign of James VI., the favorite style

was the tall square tower ; but this was now rendered somewhat more ornamental by means of sundry flourishes, such as minor towers projecting like pepper-boxes from the corners. *Glamis Castle* (Forfarshire,) is a superb specimen of this class of mansions.

In the reign of Charles II., mansions were for the first time built in any thing like pure Grecian taste. This was introduced by Sir William Bruce of Kinross, Bart., an architect of considerable skill, and of whose works the modern Holyrood Palace, and his own house of Kinross, are examples. During the last century, the mansions built in Scotland have partaken of all the changes of taste passing through England, from the heavy barrack-like structures of Sir John Vanburgh, to the light and elegant Grecian style of Adam. We have now chateaux in the style of the middle ages, (*Gordon Castle*, Banffshire, and *Colzean* in Ayrshire;) Grecian structures by Adam (*Hopetoun House*, Linlithgowshire;) mansions in the Doric and more sombre Grecian style since introduced, (*Hamilton Palace*, a superb example;) and, very lately, a few specimens in the priory and Elizabethan styles.

The geological structure of Scotland is very varied. In the Highlands the rocks are generally of the primary kind—granite, gneiss, mica-slate, &c., the granite rising into lofty peaks, on which, in many instances, gneiss, and other non-fossiliferous rocks abut or rest. In the Lowlands the rocks are principally of the transition formation (graywacke, &c.,) covered in many parts with coal-measures, trap and red sandstone. Rocks superior to the red sandstone occur only in a few detached places, and in very small quantity.

The coal-field of Scotland extends, with slight interruptions, across the central part of Scotland, from the eastern extremity of Fife to Girvan in Ayrshire; the principal beds being near Dysart and Alloa, in the vale of the Esk near Edinburgh, near the line of the Forth and Clyde Canal, at Paisley in Renfrewshire, and at Dalry, Kilmarnock, and Girvan, in Ayrshire. The Scottish coal is chiefly of a hard and lumpy kind, calculated to burn briskly, and therefore well adapted for manufacturing as well as domestic purposes.

Granite is dug in the neighborhood of Aberdeen, and at Kirkcudbright, for building purposes. The city of Aberdeen itself is chiefly constructed of it : and great quantities of it are transported to London, Liverpool, and other places, to be employed in building bridges, docks, and other structures, in which unusual durability is required. Slates of excellent quality for roofing are quarried at Easdale and Ballahulish in Argyleshire, and in other places. Sandstone slabs for paving are quarried in Caithness, and at Arbrogath in Forfarshire. A fine kind of sandstone is dug in many places, and is the primary cause of the architectural elegance of many of the public and private buildings in the principal towns. Owing to the abundance of both sandstone and trap, both of which are excellently adapted for building, little brick is used in Scotland.

The chief metals worked in Scotland are lead and iron. Lead is extensively wrought in the hills near the junction of Lanark and Dumfries shires, and silver was formerly obtained in considerable quantities in the same district. Iron has lately been worked on a great scale in the northern district of Lanarkshire, and in the counties of Renfrew and Ayr. Agates, topazes, cornelians, and some other precious stones are found in the highlands of Aberdeenshire. Mineral waters, useful for various maladies, exist at Dunse, Moffat, Innerleithen, Airthrey, Bridge of Earn, Peterhead, and Strathpeffer.

The soil of Scotland is of an exceedingly diversified character. On the

comparatively level tracts, much is composed of loam resting on the great clay bed, or diluvium, or of alluvial clay washed down from the hills. Much level as well as hilly ground is also covered by peat bog, the dissolved forests of ancient times. On the trap hills, a light and useful soil, composed of the material below, is generally found. A considerable quantity of the arable soil throughout, being composed of reclaimed bog, contains a peaty material. Out of the thirty thousand square miles comprehended in Scotland, about thirteen thousand are totally incapable of improvement, nine thousand are wastes believed to be capable of improvement, and the remainder are pretty equally divided between arable and pasture land.

The climate, as compared with that of England, is cold, cloudy, and wet; yet the temperature is not liable to such great extremes as that of either England or France, seldom falling below  $25^{\circ}$  Fahrenheit, or rising above  $65^{\circ}$ , the annual average being from  $45^{\circ}$  to  $47^{\circ}$ . The summer is uncertain, and often comprehends many successive weeks of ungenial weather; but, on the other hand, the winters are rarely severe, and often include many agreeable days and even weeks. The backwardness of spring is perhaps the worst feature of the meteorological character of the country.

Scotland was originally covered in great part by wood; and this feature is believed to have been expressed in its ancient name, Caledonia, (*choille dun*, Gaelic, a wooded, hilly country.) The natural wood has been allowed in the course of ages to go into decay, in all except a few remote districts, of which we may particularize the high country at the junction of Aberdeen, Banff, Moray, and Inverness shires. In the last century, Scotland had become nearly bare of wood, the only patches being around gentlemen's seats. Within the last fifty or sixty years, this state of things has been greatly changed. Extensive plantations have been formed in most districts, as protection to the cultivated lands. Those of the Duke of Athol, in Perthshire, are remarkable, above all, for the vast territory which they occupy. Scottish plantations consist chiefly of larch and fir; but the country also produces oak, ash, and elm, in great abundance. It is calculated that about a million of acres in Scotland are now under wood.

Scotland formerly abounded in wild animals, particularly the wild-boar, the wild-ox, and the wolf. The wild-boar has been for many ages extinct; and the wolf has been so since the latter part of the seventeenth century. Of the primitive wild white cattle of the country, there is now only a specimen herd, preserved from curiosity in the parks near Hamilton place. Birds of prey, the eagle, falcon, and owl, are still found in the Highlands and Western Islands, where also deer and game birds are abundant. Aquatic birds haunt the more precipitous shores in vast quantities. Hares and rabbits everywhere abound, and foxes are not scarce. The rivers of Scotland produce salmon and trout, and herrings, haddocks, cod, and flounders, exist in great abundance in the neighboring seas.

Husbandry was in a very backward state in Scotland till the middle of the eighteenth century. The Highlands produced herds of the native small black cattle; in the low countries, the higher grounds were occupied, as now, by flocks of sheep; but there was little arable land, and that little was ill cultivated and comparatively unproductive. Since then, under the care of a set of patriotic and enlightened individuals, Scotland may be said to have been one great experimental farm for the advancement of husbandry in all its forms. The raising of turnips for the winter support of cattle, has been in itself a most remarkable improvement. A proper rotation of crops has been studied, and has been attended with the best effects. Old, cum-

brous, and expensive modes of tillage have been banished, and the light plough and cart substituted in their place. Draining has improved not only the soil but the climate. Lime, and latterly bone manure, have been extensively introduced. The productiveness of the soil has consequently increased in an immense ratio. Oats, a hardy plant, calculated for most soils and climates, is still the chief grain raised in Scotland, and its meal is still the principal food of the peasantry, of working people in general, and of the children of all classes of the community; it is said to cover 1,260,000 acres, or a fourth of the whole in cultivation. Barley, which forms a conspicuous article in the food of the common people, and is also used in distillation, occupies 280,000 acres. Wheat is believed to occupy only about 140,000 acres; yet it is remarkable that this grain is exported in considerable quantity from Scotland, while the above two grains are in not less quantity imported from England and Ireland, testifying that the ancient frugal habits of the people with respect to food change less rapidly than the improvement of the soil advances. Potatoes are extensively raised in Scotland, and now constitute an important article of food to the working classes. The southern hills continue as formerly to be covered by extensive flocks, and sheep-farming has also been extensively introduced in the Highlands. The latter change has necessarily caused the extinction of a kind of cottier system, which came down from the old days of feudalism; yet it is believed that black cattle are as extensively reared in the Highlands as ever; and it is certain that the population, so far from being diminished by the suppression of small farms, increased about three-fourths during the first 40 years of the present century.

The Scotch, as already mentioned, are, like the English, a Teutonic people, with only a few distinctive varieties of character, perhaps partly original, and partly the effect of local and political circumstances. It may be remarked, that, though in the main Teutonic, the Scotch do not descend from the same branch of that race as the English. From language and other circumstances, it appears likely that the original colonizers of North Britain were from Scandinavia, Denmark, and Zealand.

The Scotch (taking as usual the general characteristics of the people) may be described as a tall, large-boned, and muscular race. Even the women appear to a southern eye remarkable for the robustness of their figures, though this is a point which the natives are of course apt to overlook or to be unconscious of. The Scotch figure is not so round and soft as the English. The face, in particular, is long and angular, with broad cheek bones. The cranium is also said to be somewhat larger, and tending more to a lengthy shape than that of the English. A fair complexion and light color of hair abound in Scotland, though there are also many instances of every other variety of tint.

The Scottish character exhibits a considerable share of both energy and perseverance. It may safely be said, that a country with so many physical disadvantages could never have been brought into such a condition as respects rural husbandry, nor, with all the advantage of the English connection, been made so prosperous a seat of both manufactures and commerce, if the people had not been gifted in a high degree with those qualities. A disposition to a frugal and careful use of means is also abundantly conspicuous in the Scotch. The poorest poor, at least in rural districts, are in few instances of such improvident habits as to exhibit that destitution of furniture, clothing, and tolerable house accommodation, which meets the eye almost everywhere in Ireland. Caution, foresight, and reflection may be said to enter largely into the Scottish character. Under the influence of these

qualities, they are slow and sometimes cold in speech, and are therefore apt to appear as deficient in frankness and generosity. These, however, are in a great measure only appearances. That *perfervidum ingenium*, or fiery genius, attributed to them by Buchanan, is still a deep-seated characteristic of the people. On subjects which they regard as important, they sometimes manifest this excitability in a very striking manner; as, for instance, in their almost universal rising against Charles I. in defence of their favorite modes of worship and ecclesiastical polity. Generous affections, in which, as compared with the English, the Scotch might appear deficient, perhaps only take, in their case, somewhat different directions. They cherish, more than most people, a feeling of attachment to their native country, and even the particular district and spot of their birth, for their remote as well as immediate kindred, and for every thing which reminds them of what is honorable in the doings of those who went before them. A strong sense of religion is a conspicuous feature in the Scottish national character; clear, however, from all regard to external and what appear to them unimportant things connected with it. There is no country where a more decent attention is paid to the Sabbath than in Scotland. It may at the same time be remarked, that their religion is more doctrinal than directly venerative or sentimental—a peculiarity which may be traced in the plainness of their forms of worship, as either its cause or its effect. There is a considerable tendency in the Scottish intellect to argumentative reasoning, and this shows itself in the service in their churches as well as in their philosophical literature. The domestic virtues flourish in much the same degree in Scotland as in England; but the humbler classes in North Britain are not nearly so remarkable for cleanliness as the lower English, and they have suffered of late years from the extensive use of ardent spirits. The rural laboring classes are remarkable for their steady industry and decent conduct; and it is only, perhaps, among the lower orders, in large towns, that much moral deterioration has taken place. For centuries, the wandering disposition of the Scotch has been remarkable. An immense number of young persons every year leave their native country to push their fortunes in the busier English cities, in public employment in India, in the colonies, or in other parts of the world. These persons have generally a tolerable education in proportion to their rank and prospects; and being found possessed of steadiness, fidelity and perseverance, they rarely fail to improve their circumstances. We are here reminded of the advantage which Scotland has long enjoyed in the possession of a universally diffused means of elementary instruction. This, though in some respects over-estimated, has at least insured that nearly every person reared in Scotland is not without some tincture of literature.

The population of Scotland, at the end of the seventeenth century, did not probably exceed a million. In 1755, when an attempt was first made to ascertain it, it appears to have been about 1,265,380. From that time, the country made a start in manufacturing and commercial prosperity, as well as in improved modes of rural husbandry, and the population experienced accordingly a considerable increase, though not so great in proportion as the increase of wealth. The various censuses, since 1801, inclusive, give the following results:—

Census.	Population.	DECENNIAL INCREASE.	
		Numerical.	Per cent.
1801.....	1,599,068.....	—	—
1811.....	1,805,683.....	205,820.....	12.8
1821.....	2,093,156.....	267,468.....	15.9
1831.....	2,365,114.....	261,958.....	12.4
1841.....	2,628,957.....	263,843.....	11.1

In regard to the division of the sexes, the results of the census of 1841 exhibit the following figures ;

	<i>Total.</i>	<i>Proportion per cent.</i>
Males.....	1,246,427.....	47.41
Females.....	1,382,530.....	52.59

The increase has taken place entirely in large towns, a result of the progress of manufactures and commerce. The progress of population in Scotland has, according to Mr. M'Culloch, been less than its progress during the same period in England and Wales ; while there are good grounds for thinking that the wealth of Scotland has increased more rapidly than that of either of these two countries. "This desirable result," our author adds, "seems to have been owing principally to the consolidation of small farms in the low country, the introduction of sheep-farming into the Highlands, and the obstacles imposed, by the law of Scotland, as to leases and the operation of the poor-laws, against the subdivision of land and the building of superfluous cottages. These circumstances, combined with the moral and religious habits of the people, and the general diffusion of education, have made marriages be deferred to a later period than in other parts of the empire, and have also led to a very extensive emigration.

"In consequence, the Scotch have advanced more rapidly than the English or Irish in wealth, and the command of the necessaries and conveniences of life. Their progress in this respect has, indeed, been quite astonishing. The habits, diet, dress, and other accommodations of the people, have been signally improved."

It has been shown, on the other hand, that the comforts of the people have not everywhere improved in the ratio of the general advance of wealth. That operation of the limited poor-laws of Scotland which Mr. M'Culloch eulogizes, has been shown by Professor Alison of Edinburgh to send annually great numbers of superannuated laborers and others into the large towns, where they form a dense population, living in semi-destitution, and in other circumstances unfavorable to health, and are thus exposed to fevers and other contagious maladies, which periodically sweep them off in large numbers. It is contended by the same writer, that the low condition in which the scanty provision for pauperism compels many to live, gives them reckless habits, and tends materially to increase a mean, squalid, and dangerous population. There is certainly much truth in these views.

The distribution of the population in the several counties is extremely diverse. Those containing the large manufacturing cities exhibit the greatest density, as will be seen by referring to the counties of Renfrew, Edinburgh, Clackmannan, &c. ; while in the agricultural counties, and in the northern Highlands, the ratio to the square mile is inferior. As a general fact, the farther we go north the more sparse the population becomes, and in Inverness and Sutherland numbers only from 14 to 17 to the mile. It may be said, indeed, that the Grampians form an impassable barrier between civilization and the desert, for beyond them life seems bordering on extinction.

Scotland is divided into 32 counties, the general statistics of which, as exhibited in the census taken in 1841, are stated in the annexed table :



## STATISTICS OF THE SCOTCH COUNTIES.

COUNTIES.	Area in square miles.	PERSONS.			Pop. to each sq. mile.	HOUSES.			Persons to each inhabited house.	COUNTY SEATS.	
		Males.	Females.	Total.		Inhabited.	Uninhabited.	Building.		NAMES.	Thousands of Population.
Aberdeen.....	1,985	89,523	102,755	192,283	91	32,193	1,095	288	5.97	Aberdeen.....	62
Argyle.....	3,800	47,654	49,486	97,140	26	18,514	917	75	5.28	Inverary.....	1
Ayr.....	1,600	78,970	85,552	164,522	102	30,247	1,297	69	5.43	Ayr.....	15
Banff.....	500	23,425	26,651	50,076	100	11,228	478	83	4.44	Banff.....	5
Berwick.....	446	16,527	17,900	34,427	77	7,405	382	28	4.65	Greenlaw.....	1
Bute.....	257	7,108	8,587	15,695	61	3,067	93	15	5.11	Rothsay.....	7
Caithness.....	618	16,993	19,204	36,197	58	6,962	214	53	5.19	Wick.....	6
Clackmannan.....	48	9,331	9,785	19,116	398	3,593	110	6	5.59	Alloa.....	8
Dumbarton.....	230	22,505	21,790	44,295	192	7,986	372	101	5.54	Dumbarton.....	4
Dumfries.....	880	34,097	38,728	72,825	41	14,375	724	51	5.07	Dumfries.....	13
Edinburg.....	360	102,709	122,914	225,623	626	38,903	2,861	121	5.79	EDINBURGH.....	132
Elgin.....	504	16,071	18,923	34,994	41	8,133	370	39	4.30	Elgin.....	5
Fife.....	840	65,735	74,755	140,310	280	28,965	1,502	135	4.89	Cupar.....	5
Forfar.....	840	29,234	91,146	170,380	202	36,153	2,036	124	4.78	Forfar.....	8
Haddington.....	250	17,253	18,528	35,781	143	8,009	739	29	4.37	Haddington.....	4
Inverness.....	4,600	45,506	52,109	97,615	21	19,182	578	70	5.09	Inverness.....	11
Kincardine.....	317	15,804	17,248	33,052	104	7,274	314	39	4.54	Stonehaven.....	1
Kinross.....	83	4,194	4,566	8,763	105	1,806	114	16	4.83	Kinross.....	1
Kirkcudbright, [Stewartry of.....]	882	18,838	22,261	41,099	45	8,159	316	22	4.93	Kirkcudbright.....	3
Lanark.....	870	208,369	218,744	427,113	491	80,531	3,964	863	5.30	Glasgow.....	255
Linlithgow.....	112	13,766	13,082	26,848	239	5,309	327	19	5.05	Linlithgow.....	4
Nairn.....	200	4,556	5,367	9,923	49	2,396	109	18	4.14	Nairn.....	2
Orkney and Shet- land.....	1,325	26,464	33,543	60,007	45	11,426	267	32	5.25	Kirkwall.....	2
Peebles.....	360	5,122	5,398	10,520	29	2,119	154	15	4.96	Peebles.....	3
Perth.....	2,588	65,339	72,812	138,151	53	29,172	1,708	80	4.78	Perth.....	20
Renfrew.....	241	72,725	82,030	154,755	642	24,626	1,092	92	5.30	Paisley.....	47
Ross and Cromarty.....	2,836	36,442	41,616	78,058	27	16,166	385	115	4.78	Tain.....	2
Roxburgh.....	715	21,957	24,105	46,062	64	8,674	365	38	5.31	Jedburgh.....	3
Selkirk.....	263	3,972	4,017	7,989	30	1,446	76	4	5.52	Selkirk.....	3
Stirling.....	489	41,070	41,109	82,179	167	15,837	795	36	5.91	Stirling.....	10
Sutherland.....	1,754	11,307	13,359	24,666	14	4,972	167	38	4.99	Dornoch.....	1
Wigtown.....	451	20,424	23,644	44,068	97	8,512	296	56	5.17	Wigtown.....	2
In Barracks.....	-	3,432	993	4,425	-	17	-	-	260.29		

EDINBURGH, the capital of Scotland, is situated on a cluster of eminences at short distance from the Frith of Forth. The city is composed of two principal parts, the Old and the New towns; the former being built on an eminence gently rising towards the west, where it terminates in a lofty and abrupt rock, on which the Castle is situated, while the latter occupies lower ground towards the north. The town is universally built of a fair sandstone, which retains its original color in the newer parts of the town and in the best public buildings, and forms one of the most important features of Edinburgh. The New Town is laid out on a regular plan of rectangular streets and squares, exhibiting in general much architectural elegance. Between the Old and New Towns, and between various sections of the New Town itself, as well as in the centres of the principal squares, there are gardens laid out in the modern landscape style, forming delightful places of recreation. It is chiefly owing to the unequal ground on which Edinburgh is situated, the massive elegance and regularity of its buildings, the intermixture of ornamental pleasure-ground, and the picturesque hills immediately adjacent, whence distant and extensive prospects are commanded, that this city makes so great an impression on most strangers.

Formerly the seat of the government of the country, Edinburgh is still that of the supreme law-courts and of a flourishing university. It is also to

a great extent a city of residence, not only for affluent persons connected with the country, but for strangers desirous of enjoying a society of moderate habits, and the benefits of education for their children. Its leading classes are thus composed of legal practitioners, learned persons, and families in independent circumstances. It is only in a small degree a manufacturing town, the principal trades being the brewing of ale (for which the town is celebrated,) coachmaking, the weaving of shawls, and the printing and issuing of literary productions. The leading periodical publications are the well-known *Edinburgh Review*, *Blackwood's* and *Tait's Magazines*, and a *Philosophical and Medical Journal*, besides which there are a number of smaller size. The town is distinguished for its numerous banking institutions, which exert an influence on the general trade of the country. Within a few miles of the city, on the *Esk River*, there are various paper-mills, at which vast quantities of paper are made, both for the home trade and for exportation to *London*.

Amongst the remarkable objects in the city, the most striking is the *Castle*, a large fortress romantically situated on the summit of a mass of igneous rock, between two and three hundred feet in sheer height. It contains, besides various batteries and other fortifications, an ancient palace, in which *Queen Mary* was delivered of her son *James I.* of Great Britain, and a modern barrack, in which a foot regiment is usually quartered. In a well-protected room, are shown the crown, sceptre, mace, and sword, which formed the regalia of the Scottish line of princes. The *Courts of Law* are situated in the centre of the *Old Town*, and are composed of a great hall, formerly the meeting-place of the Scottish Parliament, rooms for the two various divisions of the civil court and for the lords ordinary, a room for *High Court of Justiciary* (supreme criminal court,) and other accommodations. The extensive libraries belonging respectively to the *Advocates* (barristers) and *Writers to the Signet* (solicitors,) are adjacent; the former being a collection of about 150,000 volumes. *Holyrood-House*, the palace of the Scottish kings, is situated at the lower extremity of the principal street of the *Old Town*. The oldest part is a mass of building erected by *James V.*, containing the presence-chamber, bed-room, and other apartments, used by *Queen Mary*, with some of the original furniture; as also a gallery, furnished with (generally imaginary) portraits of the kings of Scotland. The apartments of the queen are to be regarded with no ordinary interest, both as furnishing a curious and faithful memorial of the domestic accommodations of a princess of the sixteenth century, and on account of that extraordinary incident, the murder of *David Rizzio*, which took place within them. Another part of the building, erected in the reign of *Charles II.*, contains the apartments used by *George IV.* for his levee in 1822, and a suite of rooms which furnished accommodation to *Charles X.* of France and his family, during the years 1831-2-3. Closely adjoining to the palace, are the ruins of a Gothic church, originally that of the abbey of *Holyrood*, and latterly a chapel-royal.

The *College* is a large modern quadrangular building, in the southern quarter of the city. It contains class-rooms for the professors (33 in number,) a library of splendid proportions and decoration, and an extensive museum of natural history. The university is chiefly distinguished as a school of medicine; but it is also the means of preparing a great number of the native youth for the profession of law and divinity. The *Register House* is a beautiful building, planned by *Adam*, in a conspicuous part of the *New Town*; it contains the records connected with the legal business

of the country. The Royal Institution is the general appellation of an elegant building facing the centre of Princes-street, and containing halls for various public bodies, as the Royal Society of Edinburgh, the Antiquarian Society of Scotland, the Scottish Academy of Painting and Sculpture, and an academy for instruction in drawing. Of places of worship, the most remarkable are St. Giles Church in the Old Town (once the cathedral,) a Gothic building of the fifteenth century, lately renovated; the Trinity College Church, also a Gothic building, founded by the queen of James II. of Scotland; St. George's, St. Stephen's, and St. Andrew's, modern churches of the establishment; and St. Paul's and St. John's elegant Gothic chapels of the Episcopalian body. There are two Roman Catholic chapels, and many disseating places of worship. Of the other public buildings, the most remarkable are the Infirmary; the hospitals for the maintenance and education of poor children, of which Heriot's is the most elegant; the Surgeons' and Physicians' Halls; and the offices of the Bank of Scotland and Royal Bank. On the Calton Hill are situated some other public structures, as the County Jail and Bridewell, monuments to Nelson, Dugald Stewart, and Professor Playfair, an astronomical observatory, and a small portion of a building designed as a national monument to the Scotsmen who perished in the last war, but which will probably never be completed. The population of Edinburgh in 1841 was 138,182.

LEITH, the sea-port of Edinburgh, is situated at the efflux of the rivulet of the same name, which originally constituted its harbor. The older part of the town is crowded and mean, but in the outskirts there are some good streets. The town is connected with Edinburgh by a broad and beautiful road, above a mile in length, denominated Leith Walk. Besides the quays skirting the embouchure of the river, there is a range of wet-docks; but the harbor, after vast efforts to improve it, continues to labor under strong natural disqualifications. During spring tides, the utmost depth of water on the bar at the mouth of the river is seventeen feet—during neap tides, fourteen feet; and it is rarely that a vessel of 400 tons can gain admission. The want of deep water at Leith is partly supplied by a harbor at Newhaven, a stone-pier at Granton, and a chain-pier at Trinity, which serve as places of embarkation and debarkation for steamers and other vessels devoted chiefly to passengers. The chief foreign trade of Leith is with the ports in the Baltic and north of Europe; and next to this in importance ranks its intercourse with the West Indies. But the imports of Leith are chiefly for local consumption, and bear little reference to the great manufacturing business of the country. For the coasting trade there are various companies, each of which has several vessels in employment. Amongst the ports with which regular intercourse is carried on by steam, may be mentioned London, Hull, Newcastle, Aberdeen, and Rotterdam. In Leith there are several breweries, a sugar-refining establishment, and several manufactories of soap, candles, ropes, and glass. The Custom-house, an elegant modern building, is the seat of the Board of Customs for Scotland. In 1841 the population of Leith was 26,433. The town, in union with Newhaven, Portobello, and Musselburgh, returns a member to Parliament.

GLASGOW, the most populous city in Scotland, occupies a highly advantageous situation on the banks of the Clyde, in Lanarkshire, a few miles from the place where the river expands into an estuary, 42 miles from Edinburgh, 397 miles from London, and 196 from Dublin. The external appearance of this great city is elegant and impressive. The streets are regular in arrangement, and substantially built of smooth stone. The

public buildings are in general handsome, and, in most instances, disposed in such a manner as to be seen to advantage. The more ancient part of the city extends along the line of High-street, between the cathedral and the river; the more modern and elegant part stretches towards the north-west. On the left bank of the river, and connected by three bridges, is situated the populous barony of Gorbala, bearing the same reference to Glasgow that Southwark bears to London. Westward from the lowest of the bridges, both sides of the river are formed into quays, which, owing to recent operations for deepening the channel, are now approached by vessels drawing about fourteen or fifteen feet water. The quay on the right or north bank is denominated the Broomielaw; it is 3,340 feet in length, while that on the south bank is 1,260 feet.

Glasgow took its rise as a dependency of the cathedral of the bishops, (latterly archbishops,) of the See bearing its name. It was not, however, till long after the Reformation, the seat of a considerable population. About the middle of the eighteenth century, it had acquired a considerable of the import colonial trade, which it still retains; but, during the last seventy years, it has been chiefly distinguished as a seat of manufactures. The weaving of lawns, cambrics, and similar articles, commenced in Glasgow in 1725. The advantages enjoyed by the city for the importation of cotton, in time gave a great impulse to that species of manufacture. Of calico-printing establishments there are upwards of sixty. It would be vain to attempt an exact enumeration of the less prominent features of the business carried on in Glasgow. The chief articles of importation, besides cotton, are sugar, rum, tea, tobacco, and timber. The chief articles manufactured or prepared, besides cotton goods, are sugar, soap, glass, iron, ropes, leather, chemical stuffs, and machinery. There are seven native banks, and several branches of other banks. About 6,000 vessels, of 300,000 tonnage, arrive annually. It is worthy of remark, that the Clyde was the first river in the elder hemisphere on which steam-navigation was exemplified. A steam-vessel of three horse power was set afloat on the river in January, 1812, by Mr. Henry Bell, of Helensburgh; and there were twenty such vessels on the Clyde before one had disturbed the waters of the Thames. There are a large number of steam-vessels connected with Glasgow, eighteen of which ply to Liverpool, Belfast, Dublin, and Londonderry. Within the last few years, the city has become a great centre of the iron trade, this metal being produced in the neighborhood to an annual amount of not less than two hundred thousand tons. As a necessary consequence of the commerce and manufactures which flourish in Glasgow, the city has a vast retail trade in all the articles of luxury and necessity which are used by human beings. But no circumstance connected with Glasgow could give so impressive an idea of the height to which business has been carried in it, as the rapid advance and present great amount of its population. By the census of 1791, the inhabitants were 66,578; and by the first government census in 1801, they were 77,385. But these numbers have been increased in 1811, 1821, and 1831, respectively, to 110,749, 147,043, and 202,426. In 1841 it was 257,592. As the increase is about 5,000 per annum, the present amount (1848) is supposed to be fully 285,000—a mass of population which, at the time of the Union, could not have been dreamt of as likely ever to exist in any Scottish city.

The Cathedral or High Church, is situated in the northern outskirts of the city, near the upper extremity of the High-street. The bulk of the

existing building was constructed at the close of the twelfth century, in place of another which had been consecrated in 1136, but was destroyed by fire. It consists of a long nave and choir, a chapter-house projecting from the north-east angle, a tower and spire in the centre, and a crypt extending beneath the choir or eastern portion of the building. In the nave, termed the Outer High Kirk, was held the celebrated General Assembly of the Church, November, 1638, by which Episcopacy was abolished and pure Presbytery replaced—the first great movement in the civil war.

The elevated ground near the east end of the Cathedral, has been formed into an ornamental place of sepulture, under the appellation of Necropolis. Since 1831, the Society of Merchants, its proprietors, have expended the sum of £6,000 in laying out about twenty-four acres of ground in walk and shrubberies, and in connecting the opposite slope by means of a bridge across the intermediate rivulet. The taste manifested in the whole scheme and in its execution, is extremely creditable to the city. The walks, several miles in extent, command an extensive view of the neighboring country. They are skirted by numberless sepulchral plots and excavations, where already affection has been busy in erecting its "frail memorials," all of which, it may be mentioned, are fashioned according to certain regulations, with a view to general keeping and effect.

The College buildings are situated on the east side of the High-street, about half-way between the Cathedral and the Tron-gate. They consist in a sort of double court; the front, which adjoins to the street, being 330 feet in length, and three stories in height. The whole edifice has a dignified and venerable appearance. A large piece of ground behind the college is formed into a park or green, interspersed with trees and hedges, and always kept in grass, to be used by the students as a place of exercise or amusement. In the college there are appointed professors or teachers of about thirty branches of science, theology, and polite literature. At the back of the interior court stands the modern Grecian building which contains the Hunterian Museum. This is a large collection of singular natural objects, coins, medals, rare manuscripts, paintings, and relics of antiquity, originally formed by Dr. William Hunter, the celebrated anatomist, and bequeathed by him to this university, at which he received his education. While the college confers professional education, popular instruction is attainable, under unusually advantageous circumstances, through the medium of the Andersonian Institution, an extensive school of science founded at the close of the last century, and connected with which there is a general museum, containing many curious objects, and constantly open to the public.

The most attractive modern building in Glasgow is the Royal Exchange, in Queen-street, a most superb structure, erected in 1829, as a point of assemblage for the merchants in the western part of the city. The principal room is a large hall, supported by a double row of columns, and used as a reading-room. The front of the Exchange consists of a magnificent portico, surmounted by a cnpola; and, as the building is isolated, the other sides are also of decorative architecture. Altogether, the building, supported by a set of very elegant domestic structures of similarly august proportions, impresses the mind of a stranger as something signally worthy of a great city.

Since the Reform Act of 1832, Glasgow has the privilege of returning two members to Parliament. The places of worship, charitable institutions, and associations of various kinds for public objects, are very nume-

rous. A laudable zeal for the improvement of education marks the city and a normal school, or seminary for the rearing of teachers—the first in the empire—has been erected under the auspices of a private society.

The means of communication in connection with Glasgow, are suitable to the character of the city as one of the greatest emporia of commerce and manufacture in the world. Besides a river, navigable by vessels drawing fifteen feet of water, and which gives the means of a ready communication with the western shores of Britain, with Ireland, and with America, the Forth and Clyde Canal, of which a branch comes to Port-Dundas, in the northern suburbs, serves to convey goods and passengers to the eastern shores of the island, while canals of less note connect the city with Paisley and Johnstone in one direction, and with the great coal-fields of Monkland in the other. It is connected by railways with every part of the island, and several local roads are in successful operation, uniting it with the neighboring mines. The steam communication between Glasgow and Liverpool, Dublin, and other Irish ports, is conducted on a scale that may be called grand. The vessels are superb in magnitude, decoration, and power; and they sail frequently and rapidly. The steam intercourse between Glasgow and various places in Scotland, both for passengers and objects of traffic, is also conducted on a great scale; among the places touched at in the Clyde and to the south, are Greenock, Dumbarton, Dunoon, Rothesay, Arran, Gourock, Troon, and Ayr. Among the places to the north, to which vessels sail regularly, are Inverary, Campbelton, Oban, Staffa, and Iona, Mull, Arisaig, Skye, Stornoway, and Inverness. In opening up markets for West Highland produce, and introducing luxuries in return, these vessels have also been of marked service, insomuch that the value of property in those hitherto secluded districts has experienced a considerable rise.

The country around Glasgow, particularly towards the south, abounds in busy towns and villages, of the former of which the most remarkable is PAISLEY, situated in Renfrewshire, on the banks of the small river Cart, seven miles from the city above described. The external appearance of this town is pleasing, and the streets are in general composed of substantial buildings. It originated from an abbey founded in 1160 by Walter, the first of the Stuarts, and of which considerable remains still exist. Paisley is a noted seat of the manufacture of shawls, and also of cotton thread, gauzes, and velvets. In the town and Abbey parish, exclusive of the large village of Johnstone, there are a number of cotton spinning-mills, and several thread-mills; steam-loom factories; flour-mills; calico-printing works; many bleaching works and dye-houses; breweries and distilleries; several timber yards; and several iron and brass founderies; alum and copperas works; soap works and tan-yards. An idea of the present extent of manufactures, in comparison with what it was in the last age, may be obtained from the fact, that, while the whole of the manufactures in 1760 amounted to £15,000, the annual computed value of the goods made in and around the town is now at least £2,500,000.

Paisley has been changed by the Reform Act from a burgh or barony into a parliamentary burgh of the first class, returning one member, divided into wards for municipal purposes, and managed by sixteen councillors, including a provost, four bailies, and a treasurer. Being, though not the county-town, the seat of the sheriff-court, it is adorned by a large modern castellated building, containing a jail, bridewell, and a series of court-rooms; but unfortunately the edifice is placed in a low situation, without

reference to salubrity or external influences. Devoted, as the inhabitants of Paisley are, to the pursuits of business, they have long been honorably remarkable for a spirit of inquiry and a desire for intellectual improvement. The population of Paisley, like that of Glasgow, has experienced a very rapid advance; the inhabitants of the town and surrounding parochial district, in 1821, amounted to 47,003; in 1831, to 57,466; and in 1841, to 67,675.

Notwithstanding the inland situation of Paisley, its means of communication are unusually facile and ample. The White Cart, navigable from its efflux into the Clyde to the Sneddon in the outskirts of Paisley, presents all the advantages of a canal. A canal leaves the suburbs of Glasgow, and, passing Paisley, terminates at Johnstone. Paisley is also benefited by the Glasgow and Ayr, and other railways which pass it.

In Renfrewshire, also, is situated GREENOCK, the greatest seaport of the kingdom, as far as custom-house receipts form a criterion. This town occupies a strip of sloping ground facing towards the Firth of Clyde, at the distance of twenty-four miles from Glasgow. In the seventeenth century it was a mere hamlet; now it is a handsome town of about 37,000 inhabitants, containing harbors and quays of 2,200 feet in extent. It is now, moreover, by virtue of the Reform Act, a parliamentary burgh of the first class, returning one member of Parliament. The principal branches of commerce conducted in Greenock have reference to the East and West Indies, the United States and British America, to which last it yearly sends out great numbers of emigrants. Sugar-baking and ship-building are other branches of industry carried on here to a great extent. The custom-house, fronting the Firth of Clyde, is a beautiful Grecian building, erected in 1818, at an expense of £30,000. The Tontine Hotel, situated in one of the principal streets, and containing a large public room, twelve sitting-rooms, and thirty bed-rooms, was built, in 1801, by 400 subscribers of £25 each, the whole expense being thus £10,000. There is also an elegant building, in the character of an exchange, which cost £7,000, and contains, besides two spacious assembly-rooms, a reading-room, to which strangers are admitted gratuitously. In Greenock there are two native banks, besides branches of several others.

James Watt, the improver of the steam-engine, was born in Greenock, in 1736; and an institution, for literary and scientific purposes, designed to serve as a monument to him, and termed the Watt Institution, has been erected. The situation of the town, on the shore of a land-locked basin of the Firth of Clyde, with the mountains of Argyleshire and Dumbartonshire rising on the opposite side, is very fine.

Among Scottish towns, ABERDEEN ranks next to Edinburgh and Glasgow. It is situated in the county named from it, on a level piece of ground between the effluxes of the rivers Dee and Don, 110 miles from Edinburgh. Its external appearance produces a favorable impression; the principal streets are straight and regular, and the buildings at once substantial and elegant, the chief material used in constructing them being a grey granite, found here in great abundance. New Aberdeen, or what is now generally called Aberdeen, is close to the efflux of the Dee, the mouth of which forms its harbor; and Old Aberdeen, where the ancient Cathedral and King's College are situated, is a comparatively small town, about a mile distant, on the banks of the Don. The entire population is about 65,000.

Aberdeen is a city of great antiquity. It became the seat of a university by the erection of King's College, in Old Aberdeen, in 1495; Mareschal

College, in New Aberdeen, was added in 1593. By the Reform Act, it is a royal burgh of the first class, divided into districts for municipal purposes, and returning one member to Parliament. Aberdeen is at once a seat of manufactures and a seaport. There are several great houses engaged in the cotton manufacture, in the woollen trade, and in flax-spinning and the weaving of linen. Ship-building, iron-founding, comb-making, rope-making, and paper-making, are also carried on to a great extent. The fisheries of the River Dee, and the export of granite, are sources of considerable income.

Aberdeen is entered from the south by Union-street, an elegant double line of buildings, a mile in length, and seventy feet wide, in the centre of which a ravine, pervaded by a rivulet, is crossed by a noble arch of one hundred and thirty-two feet in span, upon a rise of twenty-two. King-street, which opens up the city from the north, is sixty feet wide, and contains many splendid edifices. Besides these two main streets, there is a considerable number of modern squares and terraces. The public buildings are much scattered, but are generally of an elegant appearance. The Public Rooms, erected by the gentlemen of the counties of Banff, Aberdeen, Kincardine, and Forfar, for meetings, dancing assemblies, &c., and partly occupied as a reading-room, constitute a handsome Grecian structure, fronting to Union-street. On the north side of Castle-street, stands the Town-House, and in the centre is the Cross, a curious structure re-erected in 1822, and containing sculptures of eight Scottish sovereigns, between James I. and James VII. Mareschal College, formerly a plain old structure, has lately been re-edified in handsome style, chiefly at the expense of the nation. King's College consists of a handsome, but ill-assorted quadrangle, surmounted by a fine tower and spire. The two colleges are attended by about five hundred students, nearly equally divided between them. In Old Aberdeen are also to be seen the remains of the Cathedral, consisting of the nave of the original building, with two towers at the west end. The ceiling is composed of oak, cut out into forty-eight compartments, each displaying in strong colors the armorial bearings of some eminent person, whose name is given below, in Latin, and in the old Gothic character.

DUNDEE, situated in Forfarshire, on the shore of the Firth of Tay, may be considered as the fourth town in Scotland, whether in population, or in the importance conferred by wealth. It is a busy seaport, and the chief seat of the linen manufacture in Scotland, and, indeed, in Great Britain. A series of docks, the erection of which cost £365,000, extend along the shore, where, a century ago, there was only a small quay in the form of a crooked wall. Population, 63,000.

Dundee contains one handsome *place*, denominated the High-street, in the centre of the town, and several other good streets; but the most elegant and commanding private dwellings take the form of suburban villas. There is a handsome modern building, serving the purposes of an exchange and reading-room, besides which the most conspicuous public buildings are the Town-House and a building comprehensively called the Seminaries, containing an academy and a grammar-school. The High Church of Dundee was an interesting building of the thirteenth century, with a massive tower 156 feet high; but the whole structure, excepting the steeple, was destroyed by fire January, 1841. Dundee carries on a regular steam intercourse with London, and is connected with other principal cities by railways.



**PERTH**, the chief town of the county of the same name, is celebrated on account of its elegant appearance and the beautiful situation which it enjoys on the banks of the Tay, here a broad and majestic stream. Umbrella-cloths, ginghams, handkerchiefs, and shawls, are manufactured in Perth in considerable quantities, the number of weavers employed being 1,600; and there are a flax spinning-mill and an extensive bleach-field. The river being navigable to this place for small vessels, there is a harbor, chiefly for coasting-trade. The salmon-fisheries on the river are a source of considerable income: the fish are sent to London, in boxes. Perth had, in 1841, a population of 20,157, and it is represented by one member in Parliament.

The streets of Perth are generally rectangular, and well-built of stone. The river is spanned by a substantial bridge, connecting the town with a small suburb on the other side, and forming part of the great north road. The town contains most of the public buildings found in places of similar character and magnitude: the ancient Church of St. John, an elegant suite of county buildings, an academy and town-hall, are those most entitled to notice within the town. In the environs, besides a lunatic asylum, there is a structure designed to serve as a national reformatory for criminals. The beauty and salubrity of Perth are much enhanced by two beautiful pieces of adjacent public ground, respectively entitled the North Inch and South Inch. In the midst of a highly-cultivated vale, pervaded by a great river, and with lofty mountains in the distance, Perth, especially when its own neat appearance is considered, may be said eminently to deserve its appellation of "the fair city."

**DUMFRIES**, the principal town of Dumfries-shire, (71 miles from Edinburgh and 34 from Carlisle,) enjoys a beautiful situation on the Nith, which is navigable to nearly this point for small vessels. Inclusive of a large suburb on the opposite side of the river, the population is about 14,000. Dumfries has a few small manufactures, but its chief importance rests in its character as a kind of provincial capital and seat of the county courts, and as an entrepôt for the transmission of cattle and pork to the English market. The town has a neat and clean appearance, has some handsome public buildings, and is the seat of considerable refinement. In St. Michael's Churchyard repose the remains of Robert Burns, over which his admirers have reared a handsome mausoleum.

**INVERNESS**, (155 miles from Edinburgh,) is the principal seat of population in the northern counties of Scotland. It is an ancient royal burgh, a seaport for the export and import trade of the district, and the seat of the county courts. The situation on the River Ness, near its junction with the sea, with some picturesque eminences in the neighborhood, is one of great beauty, and the town is well-built and remarkably clean. Inverness is often called the Highland capital, being within the line of the Grampians, and the residence of many persons connected with that district. The population of the town in 1841, was 11,568. Among the objects of interest may be enumerated—the remains of a fort built by Cromwell; Craig-Phadric, an eminence crowned by a vitrified fort; and the Moor of Culloden, (distant five miles,) the scene of the fatal battle which extinguished the hopes of the House of Stuart.

The principal towns in Scotland, next to those above enumerated, are—in Ayrshire, **KILMARNOCK**, a prosperous seat of the coarser woollen manufacture—population about 20,000; **AYR**, the capital of the county, a thriving market-town, and in a small degree a seaport—population, (including de-

pendencies,) about 17,000; in Stirlingshire, **STIRLING**, the county-town, remarkable chiefly for its castle, a favorite seat of the Scottish monarchs, and from which the most splendid views are commanded. **FALKIRK**, a busy market-town, and the centre of a district remarkable for its iron founderies, particularly the celebrated one of Carron. Population, 8,500. In Fife-shire, **DUMFERMLINE**, the principal seat of the manufacture of damasks, diapers, and similar fabrics. Population, about 13,000. **CUPAR**, the county town. **KIRCALDY**, a busy manufacturing seaport town. **ST. ANDREW'S**, the seat of an ancient university. In Forfarshire, **MONTROSE** and **ARBROATH**, active seats of the linen trade, and likewise seaports. In Morayshire, **ELGIN**, an ancient royal burgh and county town.

This country was long one of the most barbarous in Europe. Its early history is obscure and uninteresting. On the extinction of the direct line of the Scottish kings, in 1290, by the death of Margaret of Norway, John Baliol and Robert Bruce, descendants of David I., appeared as competitors for the crown. The pretensions of both were supported by powerful parties, and, to avoid civil war, it was decided to refer the matter to Edward I., king of England. Edward now claimed that the kings of England were paramount in Scotland, and that the competitors should do homage to him as such. This was consented to, and Edward, finding Baliol most suitable to his views, decided in his favor. The latter, however, being less subservient than was expected, was speedily set aside by Edward, who attempted to seize the kingdom on the pretence of its having escheated to him through the rebellion of his vassal.

The nation, however, was not so to be transferred. The standard of rebellion was raised by Sir William Wallace, and in the sequel the famous Robert Bruce, grandson of the competitor of Baliol, appeared in the field. The battle of Bannockburn, in 1314, decided the contest, and gave independence to Scotland by establishing the conqueror and his family on the throne. The House of Stuart succeeded in 1371, the unfortunate history of which is invested with more than ordinary interest. The principles of the Reformers were early introduced into Scotland, and were eagerly adopted by both the nobles and people. The Protestant religion obtained the ascendancy in 1560, shortly before the return of the beautiful, but ill-fated Mary from France. At this period the royal authority was at a very low ebb, the most violent contentions prevailed among the nobility, and it would have required a sovereign of no ordinary ability and energy of character to conduct the government under such difficult circumstances. Mary failed—her anti-Protestant prejudices, and the violence of her passions were ill suited to such a condition of the country. Having been deposed in 1567, Mary was succeeded by her son James VI., then a minor. The latter succeeded, on the demise of Elizabeth, in 1603, to the crown of England, by which event the two British crowns were happily united under one sovereign.

From the accession of the Stuarts to the union of the crowns, a period of about 230 years, Scotland, speaking generally, was in a most turbulent and unsettled state. The feudal system had been early introduced, and the great estates and influence enjoyed by several of the nobles enabled them to rival the sovereign in power and importance, and sometimes to despise his orders, and insult his person. In England the power of the nobles had been reduced by the elevation of the commons, and thus the sovereign depended more on the affections of the people for support, than on the caprice of the great barons. The kings of Scotland, however, had no such support

to fall back upon—they depended on their vassals, who were restrained only by interest. In consequence, the power of the kings was much circumscribed, and civil broils were of perpetual recurrence. England, for special reasons, fomented these discords, and kept the country in a continual state of ferment and anarchy.

The union of the crowns in 1603, introduced a great change for the better into the domestic relations of Scotland. The barons could no longer look to England for countenance or support in the contest with their sovereigns, and as a consequence, the power of the latter over the masses was proportionately increased. Hence, though Scotland labored under various grievances, resulting principally from the unseasonable hostility of the sovereign to the Presbyterian form of church government, to which the majority of the people were enthusiastically attached, the kingdom gained materially in tranquillity and good order.

The union of the kingdoms in 1707, was as it were the natural result and completion of the union of the crowns. Though unpopular at the time, and opposed by many of the best Scottish patriots, it has been of vast advantage to Scotland as well as to the Empire generally.

In the suppression of the rebellion of 1745 were extinguished the long cherished hopes of the Jacobites, and at the same time this result was advantageous in stimulating the government to great measures for the civilization of the Highlanders, and the introduction of a more efficient judiciary. The old feudal judicatories were abolished, and the empire of law and order established throughout the country. The most satisfactory conditions ensued, and the public energies were happily turned into those departments of industry and enterprise in which they have achieved such astonishing pre-eminence.

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## I R E L A N D .

IRELAND is situated to the west of Great Britain, between  $51^{\circ} 26'$  and  $55^{\circ} 20'$  N. latitude, and between  $5^{\circ} 28'$  and  $10^{\circ} 28'$  west longitude. Except on its eastern side, on which are St. George's Channel, the Irish Sea, and North Channel, the island is surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean. The nearest distance between Great Britain and Ireland is twelve miles, between Fairhead and the Mull of Cantire; from Holyhead to Howth Head is 60 miles, and from Carnsore Point to St. David's Head about 50 miles. The Irish Sea in its greatest width expands to 130 miles. Ireland has a rhomboidal form, having its longer side to the direction of the meridian, and its shorter from north-east to south-west. In the direction of its greatest diagonal, from Brow-Head to Fairhaven it measures 306 miles; its extreme length from Brow-Head to Malin-Head is 290 miles, and its greatest length on a meridian, 235 miles. Its greatest breadth is 182 miles, but contracts in the centre, where from Galway Bay to Dublin it is only 110 miles. The whole island has an area of 30,387 square miles, of which about two-thirds is capable of cultivation, the remainder consisting of mountains, lakes, and bogs.

The surface of Ireland, though generally level, frequently rises into low hills. On the east coast the mountains attain a considerable elevation, but, with these exceptions, the hilly districts occur in the west. None of these, however, reach 3,500 feet above the sea. The level tracts are generally in the centre of the island, where an extensive plain, comprising nearly a

third of its whole superficies, extends from sea to sea, in no part attaining more than 325 feet elevation. The "bogs" of Ireland are its greatest disfigurement. These are found principally in the higher parts of the central district, and may nearly all be included between two lines drawn across the island—the one from Howth-Head to Sligo, and the other from Wicklow to Galway—the largest portion lying west of the Shannon, in Galway, Roscommon and Mayo. The total quantity of "bog-land" has been estimated at 2,831,000 acres; whereof 1,576,000 are flat red bog, capable of being reclaimed, and 1,255,000 acres mountain bog, mostly convertible into pasture land. The bogs are of several varieties, distinguished according to the substances of which they are composed. The peat is found to rest on a blue clay, with a substratum of limestone gravel. The depth in some places is 40 feet, but 25 may be considered as a general average. In all cases the bogs are above the level of the sea, and their elevated situation is favorable to draining. The largest of these bogs is that of Allen in King's County, Kildare, Roscommon, and Meath, which, though flat, has a mean elevation above the sea of 250 feet, and sends forth rivers in opposite directions.

The coast line of Ireland, including the estuaries of the great rivers, is about 2,200 miles long. This extended line contains a great number of fine harbors and roadsteads, chiefly in the north, south and west coasts, which being exposed to the full force of the Atlantic, are, as might be expected, indented by deep bays, protected by jutting promontories. These promontories are most numerous on the south-west coast, which lies in the direction of the prevailing winds. The east coast, on the contrary, has but one deep inlet or lough, with sufficient depth of water for every size of ships. The coast to the south of Dublin affords no shelter for large ships; and is besides rendered dangerous by the Shoals which extend along it, near the land. But with this exception, the coasts of Ireland contain numerous harbors and inlets for the reception of smaller vessels; upwards of 70 well suited for the general purposes of commerce, and 14 capable of accommodating large naval armaments. The islands near the shore are reckoned at several hundreds.

Among all the gulfs and bays, the **ESTUARY OF THE SHANNON** is the safest retreat for shipping on the Irish coast. It extends in a south-western direction from Limerick 70 miles to the Atlantic, which it joins after a gradual expansion, between Kerry-Head and \*Loop-Head, which are 11 miles asunder. Within the estuary, which is easy of access, there is ample and excellent accommodation for the largest fleets; and it may be navigated to Limerick by vessels of 400 tons, though for 15 miles below that city the channel is in many places narrow, and obstructed by rocks. **BALLYHEIGH BAY** and **TRALEE BAY**, both to the south of Kerry-Head, are very dangerous, and are sometimes mistaken for the Shannon. **DINGLE BAY** has an excellent roadstead called Valentia Harbor, the best on the Kerry coast. **KENMARE RIVER**, **BANTRY BAY**, and **DUNMANUS BAY**, are several arms of the sea further south, and all possessed of excellent anchorage and good harbors. **CROOKHAVEN**, east of Mizen-head, is an admirable port, and **KENSALE HARBOR**, formed by the river Bandon, is deep, and within the bar one of the safest of roads. **CORK HARBOR**, further east, has a deep and narrow entrance. Within the harbor it expands into a magnificent basin, interspersed with islands, landlocked, and large enough to accommodate the whole British navy. The

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\* The site of a lighthouse.

entrance is guarded by Forts Camden and Carlisle, and the harbor is further protected by fortifications on Spike and Hawlbowl, two small islands opposite to Cove. **YUGALL HARBOR** and **DUNGARVON BAY**, to the east of Cork, are indifferent harbors, and **TRAMORE BAY**, still further east, is one of the most dangerous places on the Irish coast. **WATERFORD HARBOR** is the estuary of the Nore, the Suir, and the Barrow, and such is the depth of its water that vessels of 500 tons can go up to Waterford, 15 miles from the sea, and lie safely alongside the quays. It is about two miles wide at its mouth. **WEXFORD HARBOR**, on the east coast, is capacious but shallow, and has a bar at its mouth. **DUBLIN BAY** opens between Dalkey Island and Howth-Head, which are six miles apart. The bay is exposed to the easterly gales, the bottom is encumbered with sand-banks, and the bar at the entrance of Dublin Harbor has only six feet of water at ebb. With the view of lessening this bar, a pier has been carried five miles into the bay, on the south side of the river, and is nearly met by a break-water which projects from the northern shore, but these erections have proved of no material utility. **DUNLEARY** or **KINGSTOWN HARBOR**, on the south-east shore, and **HOWTH HARBOR** on the north-east of the bay, have been constructed at great expense as asylum harbors. In the former the largest ships may lie in security in from  $2\frac{1}{4}$  to 4 fathoms water, but in the latter the water is not sufficiently deep for large vessels. **DUNDALK BAY**, **CARLINGFORD LOUGH**, and **LOUGH STRANGFORD**, are moderately safe harbors, but are avoided by mariners on account of their dangerous approaches. **BELFAST LOUGH** is eight miles wide at its entrance, and penetrates inland thirteen miles. It is deep and capacious, but shoals so as to prevent large ships reaching the city except at tide. **FOYLE** and **LOUGH SWILLY** are large gulfs on the north, and are separated by a large peninsula, on the neck of which stands the city of Londonderry. These loughs penetrate from 15 to 25 miles inland, and are very capacious. Several bays of minor importance indent the northern coast. **DONEGAL BAY** contains several harbors and creeks, but none of them except that of Killybegs are accessible to large vessels. **SLIGO BAY** is a capacious inlet. The other most important not yet mentioned, are **Blacksod Bay**, **Clew Bay**, **Roundstone Bay**, and **Kilkerran Bay**, all between Donegal and Galway Bays. **GALWAY BAY** contains many harbors, is well protected, and perhaps one of the best roads in the kingdom.

The most noted capes are—on the *coast of Leinster*, Carnsore Point, (latitude  $52^{\circ} 12' N.$ , and longitude  $6^{\circ} 16' 30'' W.$ ;) Cahore Point, Wicklow-Head, Howth-Head, Clogher-Head and Dunary-Head; on the *Ulster coast*, Benmore or Fair-Head, 631 feet high, presenting a vast mass of rude coarse columnar stone, with a wide waste of ruins at their base, (latitude  $55^{\circ} 14' N.$ , and longitude  $6^{\circ} 3' 30'' W.$ ;) Bengore-Head, “The Giant’s Causeway,” a vast basaltic promontory on the north coast of Antrim, consisting of huge piles of prismatic columns, partly rising into cliffs and partly forming a sort of floor, seemingly paved with polygon stones, which are just the tops of so many columns; Innishowen-Head; Malin-Head, the most northerly point of Ireland, (latitude  $55^{\circ} 22' N.$ , and longitude  $7^{\circ} 23' 20'' W.$ ;) Bloody Foreland and Rossan Point; on the *Connaught coast*, Benevi-Head; Urris-Head; Achill-Head, and Slyne-Head; and on the *Munster coast*, Loop-Head, Kerry-Head, Dunmore-Head, Bren-Head, Bolus-Head, Lamb-Head, Crow-Head, Mizen-Head, Brow-Head, Cape Clear, the most southerly point of Ireland, (latitude  $51^{\circ} 24' 55'' N.$ , and longitude  $9^{\circ} 29' W.$ ;) Cork-Head, &c., &c.

The islands off the coast, as before remarked, are generally very small.

They are chiefly known as dangers to be avoided by the mariner, and have nothing otherwise peculiar to require special description. The largest are—Rathlin, off Fair-Head, Arranmore, Innis-main and Innis-lehir, off the entrance of Galway Bay; Cape Clear Island; Achil, off Mayo, &c. Few islands of any considerable size appear on the east coast.

The SHANNON is the largest of the Irish rivers. It rises from the base of the Cuileagh Mountains in the northwest of Cavan, in a limestone cavern, from which it issues through a circular gulf, about 50 feet in diameter, and at once assumes the character of a considerable river. It then flows through Lough Allen, Ree and Derg, into the noble estuary which meets it below Limerick. From the head of Lough Allen to Limerick is 144 miles, but the total length embracing the estuary is 214 miles. It is navigable to the head of Lough Allen; but the depth is no where very great, and is in some places and at certain seasons a good deal obstructed. Large sums of money have been expended, partly in making lateral cuts and partly in deepening the bed of the river at those places. The height of the Lough Allen above Limerick is 144 feet, and the ascent is overcome by one double and 20 single locks placed where lateral cuts have been made to avoid the rapids. The navigation, however, is yet by no means in a satisfactory condition. The principal affluents of the Shannon are—the Boyle, the Suck, the Inny, the Upper and Lower Brosna, the Mulkerna, the Maig and the Fergus.

The NORE, SUIR and BARROW are three large rivers, which have Waterford Harbor for their common estuary. Their sources are in the Sliebh-bloom mountains in Queen's County. Their basin includes one fourth of Ireland, and their navigation is carried far inland by means of locks and deepening the channels. The Black Water, Lee and Bandon, all in Cork; the Slaney, in Wexford; the Anna-Liffey, in Dublin; the Boyne, in Kildare; the Upper Bann, the Lower Bann, and the Foyle, are the other principal rivers, and all navigable for some distance.

In Ireland the lakes are larger and more numerous than in Great Britain. Ireland indeed is a country of lakes. LOUGH\* NEAGH, the largest, is about 20 miles long and 10 in breadth, with a superficies of nearly 100,000 acres. It is fed by several rivers, and communicates with the sea through the Lower Bann. Its surface is 48 feet above the sea, and its depth 102 feet. Its navigation is rendered dangerous on account of frequent squalls and the want of harbors. Its waters are celebrated for their petrifying qualities. LOUGH ERNE, in Fermanagh, consists of two lakes connected by a winding passage. It extends about 40 miles in length, and covers about 40,000 acres. Several islands appear on its surface. Its elevation above the sea is 150 feet, and it discharges itself by a rapid current of 9 miles, which terminates at the cataract of Ballyshannon. LOUGH CORRIB, in Connaught is 24 miles long and 14 broad in its widest part, but is contracted to a narrow pass in its centre, which is crossed by a ferry. LOUGH MASK is about three miles distant and about half as large as the Corrib. The LAKES OF KILLARNEY lie in the midst of the mountains of Kerry, and are celebrated for their picturesque beauties more than for their extent. LOUGH DERG (Red Lake,) a small lake in the south eastern corner of Donegal, contains several small islands, on one of which is a noted place of pilgrimage, called "St. Patrick's Purgatory," consisting of a cavern 10 feet in length by only two and a half in breadth, by passing through which and performing

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\* *Lough*, like the Scoto-Celtic word *Loch*, is applied to fresh water lakes and to land locked and deep inlets of the sea.

sundry tedious ceremonies, the deluded pilgrims believe that they obtain a remission of their sins. For this purpose, every year between the 15th July and 15th August, crowds of people arrive at Lough Derg from all parts of Ireland to go through their stations as the ceremonies and penances are called. LOUGH ALLEN, REE and DERG are formed by the Shannon. Besides these there are many other lakes in Ireland, at various elevations and as various in size, the total superficial area of which has been computed to amount to 455,399 acres.

Though the physical and geological structure of Ireland is similar to that of England, still the relative geological positions of the rocks are essentially different. In Ireland the coasts are for the most part mountainous, while the interior is flat, covered with rich and fruitful soil, and seldom presenting any considerable elevations. Carboniferous rock underlies the whole middle districts, while the primary rocks are noted in the mountain tracts on the north west coast and some few other situations. These districts contain rocks of the crystalline or igneous class, as well as those of the sedimentary. With the exception of granite, which is used as a valuable building stone, and some inferior slates, the only valuable rock, in an economical point of view, which occurs, is primary limestone, which is burned into lime for manure. In some places, however, the limestone beds produce beautiful varieties of crystalline marble, and various colored serpentines, which are obtained in large blocks. Metaliferous veins permeate these districts, but only a few have been worked. In Waterford, Cork and Kerry, are valuable copper mines, and in Tyrone there is a small district of grey micaceous slate, covered with old red sand stone, and containing a profusion of organic remains. The great interior valley is composed of secondary rocks, consisting of old red sand-stone, carboniferous lime-stone, coal, &c. Besides the coal which occurs in thin and impure beds in the mill-stone grit series, there are six other coal districts which appear to belong to a distinct formation, the whole of which, except that of Antrim, rest upon the upper or splintery limestone. They contain two distinct kinds of coal, the anthracite and bituminous. The first, with the exception of the small beds in Antrim, are all situated to the south of Dublin; the second to the north of that city. The coal districts of other parts of Ireland are little known and have scarcely been worked. Basalt, both tabular and columnar, occurs in the north, and covers a large area. The Giant's Causeway is a specimen of the latter, as also the remarkable formations at Doon Point on the Island of Rathlin. Potter's clay is extensively spread over Tipperary and in some other parts. Throughout the central parts are vast accumulations of diluvial matter, composed generally of clay and lime-stone gravel, in the form of low but steep hills, which, under the name of "Eskers," circumscribe the bogs, and probably have been the means of their origin by confining the stagnant water above the level of the dry country. Mineral springs are numerous—most of them chalybeate. Those of most note for their medicinal qualities are—that at Mallow, in Cork, which resembles the hot wells at Bristol; that of Ballynahinch, in Down, and that of Goldenbridge, near Dublin, both sulphureous and chalybeate. Sulphureous springs also occur at Swadlinbar, in Cavan, and Lucan, in Dublin; and chalybeate at Castleconnell, near Limerick.

The prevalent soil in Ireland is a fertile loam resting on a lime-stone foundation. The soil, though of no great depth, is sufficiently so for all agricultural purposes, and yields well with proper care. Tipperary and Limerick, long distinguished as the golden vale, possess an extraordinary

fertility. In some parts of Ireland the rocks rise above the surface in wave-like succession, the interstices being filled with rich mould, and covered with a thick close sward, which affords excellent pasturage. Large districts of grazing land are seldom met with. The only extensive tract of this description is the Curragh of Kildare, which has been used from time immemorial as a sheep walk. The mountains are capable of tillage for a considerable height, and their summits, except in a few instances, afford an abundant pasture for sheep in summer. The vegetable and cereal productions are entirely the same as in England, the difference being in the relative amount of the several staples. Potatoes and oats form a large moiety of the agricultural growths.

Ireland was formerly entirely covered with vast forests, which, in the early period of its connection with England, formed the chief obstacle to the progress of the invaders. The roof of Westminster Hall is built of timber cut in the wood of Shillalagh. Trunks of large trees are frequently found in the bogs; and even in the mountain tracts, which have long been devoted to sheep-walks, trees shoot up spontaneously whenever the land is secured from the intrusion of cattle. Timber is now scarce in Ireland, but the extension of agricultural improvement, and more especially the "Timber Act," which gives the tenant an interest in the trees he may plant, are gradually remedying this important want.

The climate of Ireland is much milder and more equable than that of England. The winters along the western coast are especially mild, no doubt occasioned by the prevalence of the west winds. Frost and snow are not frequent, and are seldom of long continuance in the southern and southwestern districts. In these, however, the falls of rain are heavy during the autumn and winter. Notwithstanding the general mildness which prevails, and which preserves the verdure of the fields throughout the year, the seasons are generally later than in England. On the whole, the climate is well adapted to vegetation, and it is seldom that such famines as those which desolated the years 1846-7-8 occur. These, however, were extraordinary years, and owed their short-comings to the loss of one staple—the potatoe—which suffered alike in other parts of Europe, and also in America.

The animals of this island differ generally in no respects from those of England, and require no specification. A delicious bird, called in Irish "Gourdet," and compared to the ortolan, is peculiar to the Blasquet Rocks, on the coasts of Kerry; and the Irish believe that every sort of venomous reptile was banished from the island by that good old gentleman, St. Patrick. Ireland was also famous for a peculiar breed of falcons: and the bones and horns of a gigantic elk or moose-deer are found in the bogs.

The antiquities of Ireland may be classed under the heads of the *Cromleac*, the *Cairn*, the *Circle*, the *Pillar-Stone*, the *Barrow*, the *Dun*, the *Lis*, the *Rath*, the ancient *Stone-roofed Buildings*, and the lofty and beautifully built *Round Towers*. The name *Cromleac* is compounded of *Crom*, which signifies Fate or Providence, and *leac*, a stone, literally "the stone or altar of God;" and to what god they were dedicated sufficiently appears by the name retained by so many of these altars. They vary in size and form, and in most instances consist of three upright supporters, two at the lower and one at the upper end, upon which the altar-stone was balanced; underneath this, and between the uprights, a hollow is usually found, which is thought to have been for the purpose of facilitating the passage of cattle and children under the sacred fire—a custom which seems to be alluded to in the Scriptures, when the Israelites are reproached with passing their sons and daughters through the fire to Moloch, one of the names given to the sun.

Of the *Cairn* there were two kinds, the burying and the simple cairn, or



high place made of stones flattened on the top. These artificial high places were usually situated on an eminence ; and here, on festival days, especially the 1st of May and the 1st of November, the fires of Bel were wont to be lighted. At these times all household fires were extinguished, to be rekindled by a brand from the sacred flame—a practice which continued till the time of St. Patrick, who succeeded in putting an end to it. Tumuli of this description abound in all parts of the kingdom.

Closely connected with the cairn, are the circles of upright stones, usually called *Druidic Circles*. They frequently surround a cairn, as that of New Grange, in the county of Meith, where the stones are placed about one-third of the whole height above the base ; frequently they encircle a pillar-stone.

The *Pillar-Stone* is so frequently joined with the circle, cairn, cromleac, and sacred grove, that it cannot be passed over in silence. Numerous instances might be pointed out of lofty upright stones in many parts of the kingdom, standing sometimes singly, but most commonly in conjunction with one or more of the above-mentioned relics of pagan times. Tradition says, that formerly the people collected round such stones for worship, which is confirmed by the common expression in Irish of “going to the stone,” for going to church or chapel. These stones are conceived by many to have given rise to the carved stone cross found in various churchyards, and of which one of the finest specimens is to be seen at Monasterboycce, in the county of Louth.

There are several kinds of tumuli remaining, of which the Irish names declare the original object. The *Lios* or *Lis*, which signifies a fortified house, was an artificial hill, sometimes approaching in shape to an ellipse, with a flat top, and an earthen breastwork or rampart thrown round the little plain on the summit, where was placed the dwelling, usually protected by a strong wattled paling, as is now customary among the Circassians. The *Duns* or *Doons* were places of strength, always perched on a rocky bold situation, and fenced by a broad wall of extremely large stones, which wall forms one of the distinctions between the dun and the lis. The *Rath* signifies a village or settlement : these abound in all parts of the island, and are of various sizes, standing sometimes singly, sometimes so as to form a chain of posts ; and frequently may be seen a large head rath, where the chieftain lived, and its smaller dependent raths, on which his retainers dwelt.

Among the earliest and peculiar antiquities of Ireland, are the low *Stone-roofed Buildings*, with high wedge-shaped roofs : of these, a few instances still exist at Kells, Kildare, Ardmore, and Killaloe. The most remarkable relics of the olden times of Ireland are the lofty *Round Towers*, of which, perfect and imperfect, one hundred and eighteen have been enumerated in various parts of the kingdom. They are built with a wonderful uniformity of plan. They are all circular, of small diameter, and great altitude. In most of them the door is at some height from the ground ; small loop-hole windows, at distances in the sides, give light to the spaces where the different floors once were ; and generally there were four large-sized windows round the top, immediately below the roof, which is high and cone-shaped. There are, however, two or three towers, in which it does not appear that there ever were any windows round the top. Of the excellence of the masonry, a proof was given some years ago by the tower of Mahera, which, in consequence of having been undermined, was blown down, and lay, at length and entire upon the ground, like a huge gun, without breaking to pieces, so wonderfully hard and binding was the cement with which it had been constructed. Various theories have been offered as to the purpose for which these mysterious buildings were erected ; the only clear point seems to be, that they were religious, as they are always placed near churches.

They vary in height from 35 to 120 feet; the internal diameter from 10 to 16 feet, and the outer circumference from 46 to 56 feet. Their tapering shape forms one of their most marked characteristics.

Ancient weapons and golden ornaments are from time to time dug up in all parts of Ireland, as bronze swords, exactly like those discovered at Carthage and on the field of Marathon. Multitudes, also, of spear-heads of all sizes, made of the same mixed metal, and curiously shaped bronze rings, have from time to time been discovered, the use of which had long been a desideratum to antiquaries, when a recent event unexpectedly threw light upon the subject, and confirmed the conjecture of Sir William Betham as to their having been current money. A variety of golden articles have been discovered in many parts of the country, such as semi-lunar shaped disks, formed of thin plates of pure gold; torques, or large twisted collars for the neck; armlets, brooches, rings, pieces of gold, bell-shaped, but solid and fastened together, the use of which has not been made out; and some rings of the same shape as those of bronze, which have been proved by Sir William Betham to have been used as money.

Under the head of *Ecclesiastical Antiquities*, rank those buildings which may be considered as the most ancient, after the Pagan remains, and which bear a peculiar character, differing from that of any extant elsewhere. Of these but few are now in existence. The stone-roofed church of St. Doulagh's, near Dublin, belongs to the earliest date; its plan and style are equally uncommon. The latter seems to have been a rude approach to the oldest Norman; it is low and of great strength; the church, divided by a low-browed arch, seems to have had a small choir and a somewhat larger nave. There are also strangely disposed, at various heights, small chambers, apparently for the residence of the clergy. A part of the building is used as the parish church; and the old tower has borne the addition of a belfry, so excellent was the mason work. The beautiful and curious ruin at Cashel, called *Cormack's Chapel*, is Norman in character, and was probably the cathedral of that diocese previous to the English invasion. It is considered to have been built in the tenth century by Cormac, who was both king and archbishop. He died about A. D. 990. It is to be observed, that both here and at St. Doulagh's, are crypts placed *over* the churches—a peculiarity known in Ireland only; the crypts in all other countries being underneath. In this very marked Irish-Norman style, there exist a few remains at Aghadoe, near Killarney, at Clonathen, in the county of Wexford, and near Bannow, in the same county, in an ancient town, which having been, time out of mind, overwhelmed by the blowing sand from the coast, has only within a few years been discovered, but, protected by the sand, is in a high state of preservation. The peculiar character which marks these buildings, proves them to be examples of the Irish style subsequent to the age of the towers, and previous to that brought in by the British invaders. Ireland cannot boast of any ecclesiastical buildings of great richness or beauty; but there are some of respectable appearance. The two cathedrals of the capital, St. Patrick's and Christ-church, are at least elegant in the interior. The large cathedral of Galway, and that of Limerick, are both handsome buildings, as is the cathedral of Kilkenny. These are all in good order, and in daily use. There are numberless ruins of monasteries, abbeys, knights' preceptories, and churches, of which the chief are—*Kilconnel Abbey*, in the county of Galway; *Corcomroe*, in Clare, the finest ruin in Ireland; *Holy Cross*, in Tipperary; the *Old Cathedral*, on the Rock of Cashel; *Dunbrody*, and *Tintern Abbeys*, in Wexford; *Jerpoint*, in Kilkenny; and *Lusk*, in the county of Dublin. Kilconnel and Lusk are remarkable for rude bas-relievos in stone, which bear a degree of resemblance

to the Egyptian hieroglyphics. Many of these still retain fragments of their former ornaments of fretted stone-work—Holy Cross in particular.

The traveller in Ireland must be struck with the vast numbers of small castles which stud the whole country. They chiefly bear date about the reign of Elizabeth, by whose orders they were raised, as strongholds to overawe the wild Irish. They are usually high and square, with towers at each corner. Besides these fortalices, there are ruins of very large castles, so customarily attributed to King John, as to show that they were built in the early times. Of these, the extensive ruin at Trim, in the county of Meath, affords a fair example, as being one of the largest, and often formerly the residence of the viceroy or chief governor. Parliaments were held within its walls, and money minted there and sent into circulation. A few of the ancient castles belonging to the old nobility still continues to be inhabited, as *Malahide*, Lord Talbot's de Malahide, and *Howth*, the Earl of Howth's, both in the county of Dublin; *Shane's Castle*, the residence of Earl O'Neil; *Portumna Castle*, on the Shannon, that of Lord Clanrickard; and *Kilkenny Castle*, the seat of the Marquis of Ormond.

The agricultural system of Ireland is in the worst possible state. In the grazing counties farms are spread over thousands of acres, but in the counties where tillage is the chief occupation, they are very small, and often limited to two or three acres. Here is the origin of Irish misery and destitution. These small patches are held at rack-rent by the miserable cultivators, who derive from their labors only the scantiest and poorest subsistence for themselves. In such circumstances improvement is out of the question, and besides, the peasantry are so wedded to a native sloth, and the usages of their forefathers, that no persuasion can induce them to adopt new and improved methods of increasing the products of their farms. The consequence is, the present lamentable condition of the laboring classes, and, without alteration, this state must become worse and worse with the increase of population. The dairy farms form a conspicuous feature in the rural economy of the country, and occupy a still greater portion of the soil than that used by the grazier. Butter of excellent quality is largely made for export, and cheese is fast becoming a leading article. Grazing farms are mostly found in Limerick, Tipperary, Roscommon, and Meath, from which large numbers of cattle and much salted beef are exported. The chief sheep-breeding counties are Roscommon, Galway, Clare, Tipperary, and Limerick, but no county in Ireland equals Galway in the management of this valuable animal, and no where are finer flocks to be seen. Latterly the sheep of Ireland have been much improved by judicious crossing. Merino sheep have been introduced and found to agree well with the soil and climate. On the mountains there is still found a breed similar to that of Wales, of small size, with nearly as much hair as wool. The total number of sheep is estimated at 3,000,000. Large flocks of goats are also found on the mountains. Horses for agricultural purposes are generally poor—as poor as their owners, but those for general use, both for draught and saddle, are excellent, and blood horses of high price and repute are bred in the rich pastures of the principal grazing counties. Hogs are kept in great numbers; and in general among the peasantry the hog is the inmate of the cabin, a member of the family, upon whose "pork" the owner chiefly depends for the payment of his rent. Hence it acquires a docility and *gentility* of manners unknown elsewhere. Its food is invariably the potatoe; and when fit for market it is either slaughtered in the provision markets of Cork, Waterford, Belfast, or Newry, or exported alive to Liverpool or Bristol, at which ports thousands are annually landed to feed the appetites of the more fastidious English.

The Irish originally belong to the Celtic stock, and a dialect of the Celtic language, nearly akin to the Erse of Scotland, still prevails in the south and west. Since the conquest by Henry II. the English and the English language have pervaded Ireland, so that the present is a very much mixed race. Many Scottish families have also settled in Ulster, and have transfused much of their peculiar character into that portion of the island. According to the native writers and orators, the lower classes of Ireland are the "finest pisintry in the world," and even impartial observers have exhibited them as a cheerful, light-hearted and thoughtless race; but they are in general idle and slothful, and the great bulk of them is in the lowest state of ignorance, poverty, and degradation. In what degree is government amenable for this state of matters? For centuries the Irish have been treated as a conquered people, their country has been parcelled out to strangers, whose descendants still live among them as strangers, or, as in numerous cases, spend at a distance the revenues they derive from the soil by means of hired servants or lessees, caring little for the improvement of the abject natives. In addition to this evil the Irish have had forced on them a religion they abhor and a Church Establishment which they must support, while the clergy of their own persuasion, who depend entirely on the voluntary contributions of their flocks, claim at least an equal allowance. That the Irish have borne so long with such a state of things as this without becoming even more degraded than they really are, is a strong proof that they really possess that good nature and right disposition attributed to them. There is no doubt that many of the bad qualities some writers give them are so given through prejudice, but at the same time the exordia of an O'Connell or a Meagher are not a proper test of the actual attributes of the native population. They have their faults—natural, inborn, and Celtic—and no eulogy can erase, nor need any enemy magnify them. They are a visible reality. But how the enormous social and political abuses which now exist, and the consequent moral evils which have over-spread every corner of this luxuriant island are to be removed, and a better state of things introduced, is a problem, the solution of which is to the wisest of statesmen and the most ardent philanthropists sufficiently difficult. One thing is certain, however, that under British rule improvement is not to be expected—the overthrow of that alone can redeem Ireland from the bondage she has suffered for seven centuries, and then, and then only, can the people be raised to a proper position.

The population of Ireland, in 1672, according to the calculations of Sir William Petty, amounted to 1,320,000. In the succeeding 50 years it had doubled; but during the next half century, from 1723 to 1777, it had advanced more slowly, being in the latter year only 2,690,000. From the latter period to 1841, however, it had more than trebled its numbers. The parliamentary censuses, the first of which was taken in 1811, exhibit the following results:

Census.	Population.	DECENNIAL INCREASE.	
		Numerical.	Per Cent.
1811.....	5,937,856 .....	.....	.....
1821.....	6,801,827 .....	863,971.....	14.6
1831.....	7,734,365 .....	932,538.....	13.6
1841.....	8,176,124 .....	441,759.....	5.7

Ireland is divided into four provinces, Leinster, Ulster, Connaught and Munster, which are subdivided into 33 counties, as stated in the following table. Thirty of the counties are subdivided into baronies, very unequal in extent, of which there are in Leinster 97, in Ulster 54, in Connaught 42, and in Munster 59. The county of Cavan is divided into (eight) Hundreds,

and Cork is divided into two ridings, named the east and the west, and these are subdivided into (23) Hundreds. Parishes likewise form both civil and ecclesiastical divisions, but they do not always correspond with those of the counties and baronies—some of them extending not only into different baronies but even into different counties. The following table contains the names of the provinces and counties, with the extent of each in square miles, the population, and the names of the principal towns :

PROVINCES AND COUNTIES.	Area in square miles.	POPULATION.		COUNTY SEATS.	
		Numerical.	To sq. mile.	NAMES.	Population.
I. LEINSTER.					
Carlow.....	343	86,228	253.3	Carlow .....	10,409
Dublin.....	388	372,733	980.8	DUBLIN .....	238,531
Kildare.....	613	114,488	187.6	Kildare.....	—
Kilkenny.....	802	202,420	253.0	Kilkenny.....	23,625
King's.....	825	146,857	179.1	Tullamore.....	6,500
Longford.....	412	115,491	281.7	Longford.....	4,300
Louth.....	322	111,979	366.2	Dundalk .....	10,780
Meath.....	886	183,828	208.9	Trim.....	3,500
Queen's.....	620	153,830	246.2	Maryborough.....	3,500
Westmeath.....	603	141,300	235.6	Mullingar.....	4,600
Wexford.....	882	202,033	229.5	Wexford.....	11,252
Wicklow.....	775	126,143	163.7	Wicklow.....	2,400
Drogheda.....	9	16,261	1,806.7	Drogheda.....	19,260
Total.....	7,480	1,973,731	263.8		
II. ULSTER.					
Antrim.....	1,182	360,875	305.8	Carrickfergus.....	9,379
Armagh.....	516	232,393	450.3	Armagh.....	10,245
Cavan.....	1,162	243,158	209.2	Cavan.....	5,534
Donegal.....	1,820	296,448	62.3	Lifford.....	1,200
Down.....	955	361,446	378.4	Downpatrick.....	4,800
Fermanagh.....	734	156,481	213.2	Enniskillen.....	5,686
Londonderry.....	810	222,174	274.2	Derry.....	15,150
Monaghan.....	511	200,442	392.2	Monaghan.....	4,000
Tyrone.....	1,173	312,956	274.1	Omagh.....	—
Total.....	8,868	2,386,373	269.1		
III. CONNAUGHT.					
Galway.....	2,360	440,198	186.5	Galway.....	32,511
Leitrim.....	672	155,207	231.1	Carrick on Shannon.....	1,500
Mayo.....	859	388,887	452.0	Castlebar.....	7,500
Roscommon.....	596	253,591	425.4	Roscommon.....	3,500
Sligo.....	356	181,886	510.9	Sligo.....	14,310
Total.....	4,843	1,419,859	293.2		
IV. MUNSTER.					
Clare.....	1,253	286,394	228.5	Ennis.....	9,318
Cork.....	2,765	854,116	308.8	Cork.....	106,055
Kerry.....	1,795	293,880	163.7	Tralee.....	11,363
Limerick.....	1,054	330,029	313.1	Limerick.....	65,296
Tipperary.....	1,583	435,553	275.6	Clonmel .....	13,505
Waterford.....	736	196,187	266.5	Waterford.....	29,288
Total.....	9,186	2,396,161	268.4		
Grand Total.....	30,387	8,176,124	269.0		

From the above it will be seen that the population is most crowded and numerous in the province of Connaught, and that in the other provinces the density is not much different from the average density of the whole country. The most populous county, in reference to its area (excluding Dublin and Drogheda, in the former of which three fourths of the people are resident in the city, and the same may be said of the latter,) is Sligo. Mayo, Armagh, and Roscommon are the next largest; and are followed in accordance with their relative density by Monaghan, Down, Louth, Limerick, Cork, Antrim, Longford, Tipperary, Londonderry and Tyrone—all of which contain above the average of the whole island. Donegal has the least population, its ratio being only 62.3 to each square mile. The others vary: ten have between 200 to 266, and the remainder range under 200 as low as 163 persons to the square mile. This distribution is generally governed by local causes, affecting the procurement of labor, and it will be found generally that where any county exceeds the general ratio, that the surplus is aggregated in ports or large cities where either the requisitions of commerce, or the manufacturing employers, call for a large amount of labor. Thus it will be found in Dublin, where both commerce and manufactures are active, that the great proportion is confined within the city, while the average of the remainder of the county is much below the county ratio. It is so with Londonderry, and partially so in Limerick and Cork. The people of the several provinces differ essentially, likewise, in their physical and moral capacities, and in their habits and employments are as separate and distinct nations. Of these we will speak anon, and now proceed to give a description of the peculiarities of each section and of the cities they respectively contain.

LEINSTER is the largest province of Ireland, and contains the twelve counties of Louth, Meath, Dublin, Wicklow, Wexford, Carlow, Kilkenny, Kildare, Queen's County, King's County, Westmeath, and Longford, the whole forming a large tract of country on the east side of the island, and having Dublin at a central point on the coast. The scenery of Leinster is much varied. The county most remarkable for picturesque beauty is that of Wicklow, a short way south of Dublin; the hills, glens and valleys are here rich in natural wood, and, bounded by an extensive prospect of the ocean, can hardly be exceeded in beauty. The principal points of attraction are Lough Bray, a woody ravine called the Dargle, and the Vale of Avoca, which is one continuous piece of sylvan pleasure-ground. Wexford, still farther south, may also, to a considerable extent, be described as a picturesque and fertile country; and, though the county of Meath is for the most part flat and tame, except along the banks of the Boyne and Blackwater, it can boast there of some spots of redeeming beauty; and in a large portion of the county the quantity of wood and the rich hedgerows give a pleasing character to the landscape. Westmeath is remarkable for expansive lakes, and for the dry gravelly hills which give variety to its surface. The Queen's County, though a good deal disfigured by bog, yet boasts, at Abbeileix and Dunmore, of a great stretch of magnificent natural oak wood. The remaining part of Leinster cannot be considered interesting or peculiar in its general features. The King's County contains the greatest portion of the flat flow-bog, on the eastern side of the Shannon; and towards Roscrea, where the Slieve Broom Mountains terminate, there is some fine scenery, especially about the ancient castle of Leap.

Leinster may be considered as much superior to the other provinces with respect to agriculture; and some parts of Carlow, Kildare, and Wexford,

are cultivated in a manner approaching in skill to that of the agricultural districts of England and Scotland. In stock, implements, rotation of crops, and the industry with which manure is collected and composts manufactured, there is a great and increasing improvement. Farming societies, ploughing-matches, and premiums for new and better breeds of cattle, have greatly tended to this increasing prosperity; and they only who have witnessed what these districts were previous to the Union, can appreciate the amelioration which has since taken place.

In Kilkenny and its vicinity, the blanket trade was carried on to some extent, but latterly it has been in a very declining state. Near Dublin are some extensive paper manufactories, and in the county of Meath is a large flax-mill. Generally speaking, however, there are but few manufactures in Leinster. There is from its chief towns a considerable export of agricultural produce.

The counties of Wicklow and Wexford contain an industrious and thriving population; and because industrious, the people are able to pay, from soils not superior to those of other districts, rents which would be intolerable in other parts of Ireland. The Wicklow peasantry are reckoned the finest in the world, and are proverbial for their handsome features and fine Roman profiles, and still more so as being a respectful, quiet, and well-conducted people. The county of Meath is remarkably fertile; but being less subdivided, is therefore less populous than any other part of Ireland, considering the richness of its soil. The same prosperity as that in Wicklow and Wexford, though, perhaps, in a smaller degree, prevails in Kildare, Carlow, and the Queen's County. The average wages of the agricultural laborer is a shilling a day in summer, and from 8d to 10 pence in winter, without food. The general diet of the peasantry is potatoes, milk, stirabout, eggs, butter, bacon, and herrings. Their dwellings are confessedly superior to those of Munster or Connaught. The resident gentry are more numerous, and take a great interest in the well-being of their tenantry. Leinster, therefore, may altogether be pronounced a much improved part of the country.

As the woollen and silk manufactures are still carried on in Dublin and other parts of Leinster, a slight sketch of their history may not be out of place in the account of that province. So early as the reign of Henry III., Irish woollen manufactures were imported from Ireland to England, duty free; and so excellent was their quality, that, from 1327 to 1357, they were exported to Italy, at a time when the woollen fabrics of the latter country had attained a high degree of excellence. The prosperity of the trade is noticed in an act of Elizabeth; and so flourishing was it in the time of Sir William Temple, that he became apprehensive lest it should interfere with that of the English. In 1688, the woollen manufacture was established to a considerable extent in the liberties of Dublin. But this prosperity was soon interrupted by the English presenting a petition for the imposition of such heavy duties on the exportation of wool, as greatly injured the trade. It never, however, became extinct in the liberties, though it now extends only to the manufacture of coarse fabrics. In 1773, the Dublin Society, anxious for its revival, procured an order that the army should be clothed with Irish cloth. This employment, however, became soon monopolized by one or two great houses which had Parliamentary interest; one of these failed in 1810, and the failure was followed by the bankruptcy of almost the entire woollen trade of Dublin; for the general credit was so much affected, that the banks refused to discount the bills of the

manufacturers, and consequently the crash became general. The trade is now almost confined to the city of Dublin.

The silk trade was introduced by the French refugees, and about 1693, fully established by them in the liberties of Dublin. In 1774 an act was passed, placing it under the direction of the Dublin Society, for the extent of two miles and a half round; and that society was empowered to make regulations for its management, which it accordingly did, and also opened a silk warehouse, and paid a premium of five per cent. on all sales made therein. But this warehouse was ruined by an act passed about the year 1786, prohibiting any of the funds of the Dublin Society from being applied to support any house selling Irish goods either wholesale or retail. This act gave to the manufacture a check by which hundreds of people were thrown out of employment. According to a return made in 1809, there were still 3,760 hands engaged in it, who, after the passing of this cruel act, struggled to support the trade; but when the protecting duties were taken off in 1821, and steam communication opened with England, the Irish market was inundated with goods at a smaller price than that at which her native fabric could be produced, and thus the ruin of the trade was completed. The tabinet fabric of silk and worsted, for which Dublin has long been famous, is the only branch of the silk business which has not materially suffered from these discouragements. At present, silk tabareaus of great beauty, and rich silk velvets, equal to those of France, are manufactured in Dublin.

The chief towns in Leinster are Dublin, Kilkenny, Drogheda, Wexford, Maryboro, Mullingar, and Trim.

DUBLIN, the principal town in Leinster, and the capital of Ireland, is situated at the margin of a beautiful bay, on a generally flat piece of country, through which flows the river Liffey, and is, therefore, agreeably placed both for commerce and the accommodation of a large population. In point of size, Dublin occupies a place between Edinburgh and London, and its appearance never fails to surprise and delight the stranger. In external aspect, it is essentially an English town, being built of brick in a neat and regular manner, but abounding in a class of elegant public structures of stone, which resemble the more substantial embellishments of Paris and other continental cities. The river, flowing from west to east, divides the city into two nearly equal portions, and is a striking feature in the general plan. The leading thoroughfares of the city are easily comprehended. First, from east to west, there is the double line of houses and quays bordering upon the river, the lower part of which forms a harbor, and is crowded with vessels. Crossing this line at right angles, is the great line formed by Sackville, Westmoreland and Grafton streets, the first and second of which are connected by Carlisle Bridge, the lowest in a range of eight or nine which span the river at various distances from each other. Parallel to the quays, on the south side of the river, there is a shorter arterial line of great importance, formed by College Green, Dame-street, Castle-street, and Thomas-street, being terminated to the east by the buildings of the University. Though the ancient part of the city occupies the south bank of the river, there is a portion of the mean and elegant on both sides; the streets and squares of the wealthy being here, contrary to the usual rule, in the north-east and south-east districts. All the great lines are formed by houses of lofty and elegant proportions, chiefly devoted to commerce; and perhaps no city can present a more splendid series of shops and warehouses. Sackville-street, a hundred perches in length and six in width, with a noble



monumental pillar in the centre, and some of the finest public buildings in the world lending it their effect, must impress every one as something worthy of a great city. The spaciousness of several of the squares in the aristocratic districts is equally impressive. Merion Square is half, and St. Stephen's Green nearly a whole mile, in circumference, the latter containing seventeen acres of pleasure-ground in the centre.

On first walking into the streets of Dublin, the stranger is apt to see, in the throng of carriages and foot-passengers, nothing more than what he expects to find in all large cities. He soon observes, however, that, besides the luxurious class who occupy the better kind of vehicles, and the busy, well-dressed crowd who move along the footways, there is a great multitude of mean and mendicant figures, such as are only to be found in a small proportion in other cities. This is the very first peculiar feature which the stranger detects in Dublin, and it is an unfortunate one. It is explained when we learn, that, of the large population of Dublin—supposed to approach three hundred thousand—fully three-fourths are beneath what is recognized in Britain as the middle rank. Thus the most respectable streets in Dublin, and the most elegant figures which appear in them, seem isolated in the midst of penury and meanness.

The public buildings of Dublin boast an elegance much above what might be expected from the general character of the city. In sailing up the river, the eye is first attracted by the Custom-house, a large and splendid edifice in the well-known taste of the Adams, surmounted by a dome, and very happily situated upon the north quay. The Post-Office, in Sackville street, is in that graver form of the Grecian style which has more recently come into favor, extending above two hundred feet in front, with a noble portico surmounted by a pediment. Opposite to it is a pillar in honor of Nelson, surmounted by a figure of that hero. At the upper extremity of Sackville-street is the Lying-in Hospital, a beautiful building, with which is closely connected the more celebrated Rotunda, together with an extensive plot of ornamental ground. The Four Courts—also a most superb structure—overlooks the river at a point considerably removed to the west, and completes the list of remarkable buildings in the northern division of the city. To the south of the river, the objects worthy of especial notice are more numerous. The buildings of the University (founded by Queen Elizabeth in 1592) occupy a conspicuous situation on the great transverse line of streets which has already been mentioned. Beneath an elegant Grecian front three hundred feet in length, an archway gives admission to a succession of spacious squares, chiefly composed of brick domestic buildings, and containing a theatre for examinations, a museum, a chapel, a refectory, a library, and other apartments necessary for the business of the institution. In the museum is preserved an ancient harp, generally represented as that of Brian Boroihme, a famous Irish king of the tenth century. There are usually about two thousand students in attendance at the University. Divided from this building only by the breadth of a street, is the Bank of Ireland—formerly the place of assembly of the Irish Houses of Parliament. The deep colonnaded front of this building is one of the most beautiful pieces of architecture, not only in the British dominions, but in the world: it carries a charm like a fine picture. The hall where once the Commons of Ireland assembled—where the eloquence of a Grattan, a Curran, and a Flood, was once heard—is now altered to suit the purposes of a telling room; but the House of Peers remains exactly as it was left by that assembly, being only occasionally used for meetings

of the Bank directorate. The latter is a small but handsome hall, adorned with tapestry representing transactions in the subjugation of Ireland by king William—the battle of the Boyne, the breaking of the boom, and so forth, as also a few appropriate inscriptions.

In Kildare-street, at no great distance from the College and Bank, the halls of the Royal Society of Dublin present a powerful claim to the attention of strangers, in the great variety of curiosities, pictures and models, with which they are filled. The Castle is the next object worthy of notice. This ancient seat of the viceregal government, to which rumors of plots and insurrections have been so often brought by terror-struck spies or remorseful participators, is placed on slightly elevated ground, in the midst of the old or southern division of the city. It consists of two courts, containing certain public offices, and the apartments of state used by the Lord Lieutenant. In the lower Court is the Castle Chapel, a beautifully constructed and beautifully furnished modern Gothic place of worship, the whole materials of which are of Irish production, and which cost above £40,000. The service performed here every Sunday forenoon, graced as it is by the finest vocal and instrumental music, while a rich “religious light” streams through stained windows, and is reflected from the gorgeous stalls of civil and ecclesiastical dignitaries, is one of the most attractive things in Dublin. The state-apartments of the viceroy are in the taste of the middle of the last century, and are elegant, but not remarkable for grandeur. In one is a bust of Chesterfield, who was Lord-Lieutenant in 1745. The most remarkable room is the ball-room, denominated St. Patrick’s Hall, which is spacious and lofty, and among other attractions has a ceiling ornamented with pictures, representing transactions in the history of Ireland.

In Ireland, old ecclesiastical structures are usually more curious for their antiquity than their beauty. Accordingly, the exterior of St. Patrick’s and Christ church, the two cathedrals of Dublin, is apt to appear ungainly to an eye fresh from Westminster or Melrose. In the former building, nevertheless, the interior of the choir, in which service is usually performed, will impress every mind by its lofty proportions, its pompous monuments, and the dark stalls and niches, surmounted with the helmets and banners of the knights of the order of St. Patrick. In visiting this ancient church, the predominant thought is—SWIFT. We look for his dwelling as we approach, and for his tomb when we enter—such is the power which genius has of fixing the feelings of men for all time upon every external thing connected with it! The deanery still exists in St. Kevin-street, containing the portrait of Swift, from which all the engraved likenesses have been derived. The streets immediately surrounding St. Patrick’s Cathedral are the meanest and vilest in the city. The houses have a ruinous and forlorn look, and the pavements are crowded with a population of the most wretched order. These streets are filled with shops, but the trades to which they are devoted serve rather to betray the misery than to manifest the comfort of the people. Dealers in old clothes, pawn-brokers, spirit-dealers, and persons trading in offals, almost the only kinds of animal food indulged in by the lower orders of the people, abound.

At the western extremity of Dublin, on the north side of the river, is the celebrated public promenade denominated the Phoenix Park, said to consist of about a thousand acres. Not only does this park greatly exceed those of London in extent, but it is questionable if even the Regent’s Park, after all the expense incurred in ornamenting it, will ever match this domain in beauty. The ground is of an undulating character, and is covered with

groups of fine old timber and shrubbery, amidst which are the domestic residences of the Lord-Lieutenant and his principal officers, besides some other public buildings, and a tall obelisk in honor of the Duke of Wellington's victories. A zoological garden has lately been added to the other attractions of the Park.

Dublin possesses a number of beneficiary institutions, conducted on a scale of great liberality; also several religious and educational societies, whose operations are extended over the whole kingdom. The trade carried on in the town refers chiefly to home consumption; and, excepting tabinets or poplins, it is not distinguished as the seat of any manufacture. There is very little foreign export from Dublin. Its principal imports are—timber, from the Baltic; tallow, hemp, and tar, from Russia; wine and fruits, from France, Spain, and Portugal; tobacco, bark, and spices, from Holland; and sugar, from the West India Islands.

The most important branch of its commerce is that carried on with England, chiefly in connection with Liverpool, to whose market there are now large exports of native produce. Though the Liffey forms the harbor of the port, vessels of large burden, and steamboats, have an opportunity of preferring the harbor of Kingston, (formerly called Dunleary,) at the mouth of the bay, on its southern side. This harbor, which is constructed on a magnificent scale, with the neat town adjacent, may at all times be readily reached by a railway from Dublin, which proves a great convenience to the inhabitants. At the opposite side of the bay from Kingston, is Howth, whose celebrated "hill" forms a distinguishing land-mark.

The number of light private vehicles in Dublin is one of its most remarkable distinctive features. These are generally of the kind called cars, drawn by one horse, and having a seat on each side, admitting of two or more persons sitting with their faces outwards. To keep a car is one of the highest aims of the ambition of a Dublin tradesman. "Previous to the Union," says an intelligent writer, who has been consulted with advantage, "Dublin was the constant residence of 271 temporal and spiritual peers, and 300 members of the House of Commons. At present about half a dozen peers, and fifteen or twenty members of the House of Commons, have a settled dwelling within its precincts. Other persons of this exalted class of society, whom business or amusement may draw to the capital occasionally, take up their residence at the hotels, which are numerous in the city. The resident gentry of Dublin now amount to about 2,000 families, including clergymen and physicians, besides nearly an equal number of lawyers and attorneys, who occasionally reside there. The families engaged in trade and commerce are calculated at about 5,000, and the whole may yield a population of 60,000 or 70,000 in the higher and middle ranks of society. The change which has taken place, though injurious to commercial prosperity, has, perhaps, in an equal proportion proved beneficial to public morals; the general character of the inhabitants, which was once gay and dissipated, has now become more serious and religious, and those sums formerly lavished on expensive pleasures, are now happily converted to purposes of a more exalted nature. Formerly there were seven theatres well-supported; at present, the only one which remains is frequently thinly attended. Club-houses and gaming-tables are nearly deserted; and even among the lower classes, vice of every kind has visibly diminished. In 1831, the population of Dublin was 204,155; and in 1841, it was 238,531.

KILKENNY, the capital of the county of the same name, situated on the

River Nore, was formerly a town of great consequence, as its ancient castle, the ruins of its embattled walls, and churches testify. Till lately it carried on a considerable trade in the manufacture of woollen cloths and blankets; but these branches have in a great degree fallen off, and the business is now confined to the retail of necessities for its inhabitants, and the sale of the agricultural produce of the district. The city contains several good streets, which are respectably inhabited, both by private families and tradesmen; but the suburbs are miserable. The most conspicuous ornament of the city is the fine baronial castle of the Marquis of Ormond, full of historical associations, rising boldly over the Nore. The Cathedral of St. Canice, built in 1202, is not excelled by any of the ancient ecclesiastical buildings in the kingdom, except St. Patrick's and Christ Church, in Dublin. The town possesses a number of respectable schools, and various asylums and beneficiary institutions. Near the town there is a marble quarry of considerable local importance. Population in 1831, 23,741; and in 1841, 23,625, being a diminution of 116.

DROGHEDA, (a county within itself,) situated on the Boyne, in the line of road from Dublin to Belfast, is a town of respectable appearance, and the seat of an industrious population. From the time the English settled in Ireland, this town was called TREDAGH, and considered of such importance, that Parliaments were formerly held in it. In 1649, it was stormed by Cromwell, and the inhabitants put to the sword, except a few who were transported to America. Several steamers ply regularly between Drogheda and Liverpool or Glasgow, carrying out corn, cattle, sheep, pigs, and fowls, and bringing back cotton cloth, timber, leather, tobacco, salt, and iron. Drogheda contains three Episcopal churches—St. Peter's, St. Mary's, and St. Mark's, which is a chapel of ease to St. Peter's; four Roman Catholic chapels, two convents, and a friary. The chief civic buildings are a handsome tholsel, custom-house, mayoralty-house, jail, and linen-hall. Its principal manufactories are a flax-mill, two founderies, salt works, a distillery, three breweries, &c. There are, besides, several large flour-mills, and a soap and candle manufactory. There is a salmon-fishery on the Boyne, close to the town; and cod, haddock, plaice, soles, and gurnet, are abundantly caught along the coast. The linen trade is still carried on in Drogheda. The time of its greatest prosperity was from 1814 to 1820, during which period 4,000 pieces of linen were averaged to be the weekly product. There was also a temporary revival of the cotton trade in this town; but in the commercial panic of 1825-'6, many of the Drogheda weavers passed over to Manchester and Oldham, others went to France, and a large body emigrated to America, in consequence of which the cotton business ceased. The population in 1831, was 17,366; and in 1841, 19,260.

THE PROVINCE OF MUNSTER contains six counties: Clare, Cork, Kerry, Limerick, Tipperary, and Waterford, and may be considered as that part of Ireland in which the national character, and the national habits of all kinds, are maintained in their greatest purity. Some of the largest seats of population in the island, as the cities of Cork, Waterford, and Limerick, are situated in Munster. The province contains many tracts of beautiful scenery, and one in particular, which is allowed to be unequalled in the kingdom—the celebrated lake district at Killarney.

THE LAKES OF KILLARNEY are situated in the bosom of the mountainous county of Kerry, and are annually visited by travellers from all parts of the island, as well as from neighboring countries. They are three in number,

of unequal size, and considerably varied with respect to surrounding scenery, though that may be described as generally of a mountainous character. LOUGH-LANE, or the Lower-Lake, by far the largest of the three, is skirted on one side by the level and well-cultivated country surrounding the pleasant village of Killarney; on the other side rise the Glens and Tomies Mountains. In this lake there are a number of wooded islands, one of which contains the ruins of an abbey, and another the remains of an ancient castle. On the shore, towards the east, is the beautiful ruin of Muckross Abbey. Divided from the Lower Lake by the fine wooded promontory of Muckross, but accessible by two channels of level water, is the Middle Lake, called also Turk Lake, from the name of the mountain at whose foot it reposes. Over and above the islands which stud the surface, the beauty of these two sheets of water may be said to consist in the irregular promontories and slopes, generally wooded, by which they are surrounded, and above which the mountains tower in sterile grandeur. In many nooks of the scenery, elegant mansions look out upon the lakes; in others, the mountain streams are seen descending in glittering cascades. The Upper Lake, the third of the series, is three miles apart from the middle one, on a higher level, and totally embosomed amidst the hills. A stream descending from one to the other can be passed in a boat; and, at a particular place on the passage, it is common for tourists to have a bugle played, in order to enjoy the oft-repeating echoes which it awakes in the neighboring hills. The Upper Lake, having the wooded heights of Derincunighy on one side, the round-headed Purple Mountains on the other, and, at the head, the bare many-colored ridge of Macgillicuddy's Reeks, while the surface is broken by a variety of sylvan islets, presents a landscape of enchanting loveliness. In connection with the lakes, there is a narrow rugged vale, named Dunloe, which is usually taken in by a tourist in a survey of this fine scenery.

Among other beautiful places in Munster, we can only particularize Glengarriff, a rugged and most picturesque vale near the head of Bantry Bay; the banks of the Blackwater, between Lismore and Youghal; the River Lee, below Cork, and the fine natural harbor, (the Cove of Cork,) in which it terminates; and the lofty iron-bound coasts of Clare, amidst which are some scenes of uncommon grandeur.

The soil in the southern parts of Limerick and Tipperary is perhaps not inferior in fertility to any portion of Europe. The Corkass lands of the former, and the Golden Vale of the latter, are celebrated for their extraordinary richness. These districts are chiefly appropriated to the feeding of black cattle. Wheat husbandry is cultivated throughout the lime-stone districts of Tipperary, Clare, and Limerick, while dairy farming is followed in the mountain districts of Kerry and Waterford. The potato culture necessary to supply the wants of an over-dense population, is eagerly pursued throughout the whole province; and it is a deplorable fact, that a large portion of that population have no other food during the greater part of the year. The grass farms let in large divisions of from 150 to 400 acres, at from 40s. to £3 per acre. In the dairies of the county of Cork, the great butter country of Munster, it is no uncommon thing to have from one to two hundred cows in profit; the advantage of which is, that a cask is filled at once by butter, all of the same churning. The sweet thick cream only is churned, and that every morning. The pastures of these dairy-farms are highly manured, and are never broken up for tillage, experience having taught the dairy farmers that the older the sward the richer is the milk.

Some of these grass lands have not been ploughed for a hundred and fifty years.

Daily labourers are usually paid from 8d. to 10d. per day ; or, if engaged by the year, from 6d. to 8d. In the latter case, it is supposed that the laborer has a house, and grass for a cow, at what is called a moderate rent, and which, in the estimation of the laborer, is equivalent to additional wages. The food of a great part of the Munster peasantry consists of potatoes ; to this is usually added milk, and, if they live near the sea, haak or herrings. In Cork, but few of the laboring poor have cows, because milk can be had in abundance at a moderate price at the dairies. It is, however, very customary to have ewes, which not only supply a tolerable quantity of milk, but furnish clothing. The women spin and dye the fleeces, and have them woven into thick frieze, and fulled at the village fulling-mill ; from this practice, the southern Munster men are remarkably well clothed. The cottages, or rather cabins, are, generally speaking, wretched ; but it may be stated, that in the dwellings and furniture of the people there is a growing improvement.

Generally speaking, the trade of Munster consists in the export of provisions and agricultural produce, as wheat, oats, and potatoes, to a large amount.

There is on the Shannon an active fishery for trout, herrings, &c., and abundance of excellent fish are sent into Limerick, Ennis, Kilrush, and to the county of Kerry. Along the coast of Cork there is a fishery for pilchards, herrings, and other kinds of fish, which are caught in great quantities, so that frequently the farmers manure the fields with sprats.

The leading towns of Munster are Cork, Limerick, and Waterford. The name Cork is derived from the Irish word *Corcah*, which signifies a marsh. This city, which ranks as the second in Ireland with respect to population and commercial importance, stands on the River Lee, which, through several channels, pours its waters into the harbor, from whence the tide flows to some distance above the town. The streets are built along the river channels, which, being all quayed, give the city somewhat of a Venetian character : of late years, however, the narrower have been arched over, and only the main streams, in which the merchant vessels lie, left open.

The Episcopal ecclesiastical buildings of Cork consist of seven parish churches, the Cathedral of St. Fin Barry, St. Luke's Chapel of Ease and Free Church, the Chapel of the Foundling Hospital, and the Church of St. Michael's at Blackrock, with other churches lately built. There are seven Roman Catholic chapels, and four friaries.—There are numerous dissenting chapels—two meeting-houses for Wesleyan Methodists, one for the Primitive Wesleyans, one for Anabaptists, two for Presbyterians, one for the Society of Friends, and two for two other small bodies of dissenters. The principal public buildings are, the Bishop's Palace, which stands on a height overlooking the town ; a new jail, a little to the west of the city ; the Custom-house, large and handsome barracks, the City Library, the Reading-Rooms, the infirmaries, the Chamber of Commerce, the Steam-Packet Office, and a well-built and spacious court-house, having in front a pediment supported on six Corinthian columns and surmounted by an emblematic groupe of colossal figures.

Cork boasts of many schools—the Blue-Coat Hospital, for twenty-two sons of reduced Protestants ; the Green-Coat Hospital, for twenty children of each sex, to be brought up Protestants ; the Cove Street Infant, Diocesan, Lancastrian, and Female Orphan Schools ; the diocesan schools for the

united diocese of Cork and Ross, and a free school founded by Archdeacon Pomeroy.

Among the charitable institutions in the city are—Bertridg's Charity, where are maintained seven old Protestant soldiers; Skiddy's Almshouse, where twelve aged women receive £29 yearly; Dean's Schools, where forty poor children are clothed and taught gratis. There is, besides, a masonic female orphan asylum, and several almshouses. Indeed, in proportion to its size and wealth, the city of Cork bears a peculiarly high character for benevolence.

There are five societies here, whose objects are almost entirely scientific—the Royal Cork Institution, the Cuvierian, the Scientific and Literary Societies, the Mechanics' Institute, and the School and Library in Cook-street; one public subscription, and several circulating libraries; eighteen Protestant societies, devoted to religious purposes; four benevolent societies, for the relief of the distressed; five philanthropic societies, two lunatic asylums, and a school for instructing the deaf and dumb poor in George's-street.

The chief exports of Cork are grain, butter, cattle, and provisions; its chief imports, wine, tea, sugar, and coals. From the parliamentary returns, it appears that the average annual number of vessels entering the port is—British, 135, tonnage, 26,000; and foreign, 29, tonnage, 3,500. Steam-vessels communicate between Cork and Dublin, Bristol and Liverpool; and steamboats also ply daily between Cork and Cove. The population of Cork, according to the census of 1831, was 107,016, and in 1841 it amounted to only 106,055.

LIMERICK, the chief city of the west of Ireland, is situated on the Shannon, near the place where that noble river expands into an estuary. It consists of the Old and New Town, respectively situated on the north and south sides of the river, and connected by an elegant modern bridge. The new city contains many good streets, filled with handsome shops; but the old town is confined, dirty, decayed, and inhabited by a very miserable population. Limerick contains a handsome cathedral of some antiquity, situated in the old part of the city, six Episcopal churches and a chapel of ease, meeting-houses belonging to the Presbyterians, Independents, and the Society of Friends, with five Roman Catholic chapels, three friaries, and one nunnery. The principal public buildings are the Exchange, the City Court-house, the City and County Jail, the Police Barrack, the Custom-house, the Commercial Buildings, the Linen-Hall, the Market, and two banks. The principal school at Limerick is the Diocesan, but there are many private day and boarding schools. There are many charitable institutions, as the County Hospital; the House of Industry for the aged and infirm, widows, orphans, young females, and deserted children; the Corporation Almshouse; Dr. Hall's and Mrs. Villier's Almshouses.

With regard to the trade of Limerick, it has been observed, that though it has increased with the extension of the city, it has done so by no means in an adequate proportion, when its peculiar advantages are considered; the Shannon, which connects it with Clare, Kerry, Waterford, and Tipperary, affording it innumerable commercial facilities. The quays of Limerick are nevertheless a scene of considerable bustle, though chiefly frequented by vessels for the export of the native produce. Provisions to the amount of 75,000 tons are here shipped annually. The population of Limerick, in 1831, was estimated to be 66,555, but in 1841, only 65,296.

WATERFORD, the chief town of the county bearing its name, and a large

sea-port, is situated on the Suir, a few miles from its junction with the sea. Native produce, to the value of £2,000,000, is annually exported from this city; but the imports are comparatively unimportant. There is here a fine cathedral, founded by the Oestmen, and endowed with lands by King John, and several churches, meeting-houses for the Presbyterians and the Society of Friends, a French church for the Huguenots, and several abbeys and friaries. The principal buildings are the Bishop's Palace, the Exchange, and the City Jail. Among its schools are the Latin Free-school, and the Blue Boys' Free-school, in which seventy-five are instructed and partly clothed gratis, and the boys apprenticed to different trades. The population in 1831 was 28,820, and in 1841, 29,288.

The most northerly of the provinces is ULSTER, containing the counties of Antrim, Armagh, Cavan, Donegal, Down, Fermanagh, Derry, Monaghan, and Tyrone. The province of Ulster is hilly. The scenery is in general picturesque, especially in the vicinity of its chief towns, Derry, Belfast, and Armagh. In the county of Antrim, the country from Glenarm to Bengore Head presents a succession of striking and romantic views. The most remarkable feature of this scenery is the peculiar conformation of the basaltic columns with which it abounds, and of which the arrangement is strikingly displayed in Fair Head and the Giant's Causeway. Bengore, one of the promontories of the causeway, lies about seven miles west of the little town of Ballycastle; though generally described as a single headland, it is composed of many small capes and bays, each bearing its own proper name, and of these capes the most perfect is Pleaskin. The summit of Pleaskin is covered with a thin grassy sod, which lies upon the rock, the surface of which is cracked and shivered. About ten or twelve feet from the top, the rock begins to assume a columnar character, and standing perpendicularly to the horizon, presents the appearance of a magnificent colonnade, supported on a foundation of rock nearly sixty feet in height. About eight miles from Pleaskin is Fair Head, the easternmost head of the causeway, which presents a huge mass of columnar stones, of coarse texture, but many of them more than two hundred feet in height. Some of these gigantic stones seem to have fallen from the top, and now present to the eye of the spectator the appearance of groups of artificial ruins. The part which may more properly be called the Giant's Causeway, is a kind of a pier, projecting from the base of a steep promontory some hundred feet into the sea: it is composed of the heads of pillars of basalt, which are placed in close contact with each other, forming a sort of polygonal pavement, somewhat like the appearance of a solid honeycomb. The pillars are jointed, and their articulation curiously exact, the convex termination of one joint always fitting with precision into a concave socket in the next. Within about two miles of the Giant's Causeway stands Dunluce Castle, situated on the summit of a rock whose base is washed by the ocean, by the ravages of which great part of the building was suddenly swept from its foundation. The mansion and offices stand upon the mainland, divided from the fortress by a deep cut which separates the rock on which the castle is placed. Over this chasm lies the only approach to the building, along what was one of the walls of the draw-bridge; should the passenger miss his footing on this narrow path, there is not the slightest protection on either side to save him from the abyss beneath.

The soil of Ulster varies much. In the counties of Armagh, Down, Antrim, Derry, and Monaghan, it passes from a deep rich fertile clay to a dry sandy or gravelly loam; while in Donegal, Tyrone, Fermanagh, and



Cavan, a great proportion of it is cold, wet, and spongy. Tillage is, in general, in an improved state throughout this province; and though the old Irish plough and the slide car are still occasionally used in the remoter parts, many of the modern implements of husbandry have been introduced, especially in Down and Londonderry. The English spade has nearly displaced the long or one-sided spade; the angular harrow and the thrashing-machine are much in use, and the Scotch plough has almost superseded the heavy Irish one. The corn crops most general are oats, bere, barley, and a small proportion of wheat. Barley is in Derry said to pay the summer's rent, and flax the winter's. Potatoes are largely planted by rich and poor, and gentlemen-farmers cultivate turnips and mangle-wurzel. Lime and peat are the most usual ingredients of the manure employed in the inland districts; while in the maritime counties, sea-sand, sea-weed of different sorts, and various kinds of shells pulverized, are used in addition. From the wetness of the soil in some of the northern parts of Monaghan, the manure is usually carried to the fields in baskets, called *bardocks*, which are slung over asses' backs or the shoulders of the poor women. A small but hardy race of horses is reared in the island of Rathlin or Raghery; and the old Irish sheep still prevails in and near Carey, in the county of Antrim. Pigs, goats, and donkeys, are numerous, the latter being much used in the counties of Cavan and Monaghan. A good deal of butter is sent to the markets of Belfast, Antrim, and Derry, from the various dairies scattered through Ulster.

The province of Ulster was the seat of the first cotton manufactory introduced into Ireland. Through the early part of the present century, it was carried on to a considerable extent in Drogheda, Collon, Strafford, Mountmellick, Limerick, and Bandon. Belfast was, however, the place where most skill and capital were expended; as the trade increased there, it declined in other parts of the kingdom; and, though large manufactories have formerly been established at Clonmel, Portland, and Limerick, it may for all practical purposes be considered as extinct in the other parts of Ireland.

Wherever the linen trade is in operation, the people have constant employment, in consequence of being able to fall back upon their looms when agricultural work is not in demand. They may be said, in common years, to enjoy a competency; that is, a sufficiency of food, raiment, and fuel. But in the western parts of Ulster, as, for example, the mountainous districts of Tyrone, Donegal, and Derry, where the linen manufacture does not exist to any extent, the laboring classes are not much better off than in the three other provinces. However, speaking of Ulster generally, it may be said the lower classes have more self-respect, more industry, more desire for advancement in life, than in other parts of Ireland. In fact, they are a better educated, and therefore a more improving people. As may be expected, their taste for comfort operates in the economy of their houses and farms: and, except in the mountainous districts above alluded to, where old habits still maintain their ground, the Ulster peasantry may be considered as a respectable class in society. The average rent of arable land is from £2 to £3 per acre, usually rising in the immediate neighborhood of towns to £5 or £6. The wages in Ulster vary from 6d. to 9d. a day in winter, and in summer from 10d. to 1s. a-day, without diet. The food of the peasantry is chiefly potatoes, oatmeal porridge, oaten bread, milk and fish, which those who live near the sea vary with that species of sea-weed called the edible *alga*, or Irish moss.

The salt-water fisheries of Ireland cannot be said to have ever thriven. The river fisheries, though less productive than under better management they might have been, yet form in several parts of Ulster a lucrative source of property. The lakes and rivers abound with trout, pike, perch, eels and char, and on the Bann, the Foyle, and the Ballyshannon in Donegal, are established very successful salmon fisheries. Formerly, whales were not unfrequently, and still are, though but seldom, taken at the coast fisheries in this province. The salmon fisheries of the Foyle and the Bann were early celebrated.

The chief towns in Ulster are Belfast and Antrim in the county of Antrim; Londonderry or Derry, and Coleraine, in the county of Londonderry; Donegal, in the county of the same name; Strabane, in Tyrone; Armagh, in Armagh; and Newry, Lisburn, and Downpatrick, in the counties of Antrim and Down. Without reference to counties, Belfast, Lisburn, Newry, Armagh, and some places of smaller note, may be said to form a cluster of towns chiefly devoted to the linen manufacture, and all occupied by a population who, for generations, have been noted for their industry and peaceful habits.

BELFAST is esteemed the principal town and sea-port in this province of Ireland. It is advantageously situated on the west side of the Lagan, where that river swells into an estuary called the Bay of Belfast; distance from Dublin 85 miles. The ground on which the town stands is flat, while the beautiful and fertile environs on the western side of the vale are bounded by a picturesque range of mountains. Within the town, the opposite shore of the Lagan is reached by a long stone bridge, which also forms the egress from Belfast towards Donaghadee. Although this portion of Ireland is inhabited chiefly by Scotch, or their descendants, Belfast, like Dublin, is essentially an English town in external aspect, being built of brick, and having throughout a neat and regular appearance, with many handsome shops. The prosperity of Belfast is dated from the revolution of 1688, when religious and political tranquillity settled upon that part of Ireland. Belfast is to Ireland what Glasgow is to Scotland and Liverpool to England. In manufactures, it is now the great *dépôt* of the linen business, and the seat of the cotton trade, having within itself all the various branches necessary for producing and finishing these fabrics, from the finest cambric to the coarsest canvass. There are in Belfast and its suburbs a large number of steam-power mills, for the spinning of linen yarns. The hand-spun yarn sold on commission in the linen-hall (a cluster of buildings devoted to the use of linen factors,) produces about £100,000 a year. The cotton trade is declining, several of the mills being employed in spinning flax; and there are now only six cotton-mills in the town. There are also extensive corn-mills, breweries, distilleries, and tan-yards, with manufactories of machinery, cordage, glass, iron, soap, candles, tobacco, &c., for home use and exportation. In commerce, its exports and imports are extensive. Latterly, great improvements have been effected for the accommodation of the shipping, by deepening and contracting the harbor, and furnishing handsome and substantial quays, wharfs, and docks. The port usually exhibits a busy scene of industry, by the daily sailing and arrival of ships and steam-vessels. Steamers sail regularly to Glasgow, Liverpool, London, and Dublin. In the retail trade the numerous branches are carried on in a spirited and tradesman-like manner; and the various markets for the sale of the rural produce, which is brought in large quantities to town, are well conducted; in a word, the whole system of trade and industry is on an efficient scale, and equals that of any town of similar size in England or Scotland.

Belfast abounds in Presbyterian and other Dissenters. The Episcopal places of worship are only two (some authorities say three) in number; but there are ten Presbyterian meeting-houses; there are also two meeting-houses of Independents; the Methodists, four; the Society of Friends, one; and the Roman Catholics, two. The town possesses some excellent charitable and humane institutions: the principal are—a poor-house for the aged and infirm, a house of industry, a lunatic asylum, an institution for the blind and for deaf mutes. This institution is on the same plan as that of Liverpool. The blind are employed in weaving and basket-making, and lately, by the introduction of raised letters, they have been instructed in reading. There are in the town and parish sixty-three schools of all kinds, exclusive of the Royal Academical Institution. This institution originated in 1807, in a voluntary subscription of the inhabitants, by whom a fund was raised of above £25,000, to which the late Marquis of Hastings added £5,000 for its erection, and the endowment of its teachers and professors. It consists of two departments, one elementary, the other for the higher branches of science and literature. This establishment is directed by a president, four vice-presidents, twenty managers, and eight visitors, chosen by the proprietary. The chairs in the collegiate department are eight, embracing Divinity, Moral and Natural Philosophy, Logic, Mathematics, Greek, Latin, Hebrew, and a lectureship on Irish. The object of this academy was to give cheap home education to those who had heretofore frequented the Scottish colleges. The Synod of Ulster receives the general certificate of this institution as a qualification for ordination, and it may be now considered the great seminary for the Presbyterian Church in Ireland. The Belfast Academy had been founded some time previously by private subscription.

Of literary societies, Belfast possesses the Society for Promoting Knowledge, founded 1788; the Literary Society for Improvement in Literature, Science, and Antiquities, founded 1801; and the Natural History Society, founded 1821. The town has lately received the valuable addition of a botanic garden, on a large scale, and laid out in an exceedingly tasteful manner. It was established, and is wholly supported by the inhabitants of Belfast, and affords a pleasing proof of their spirit and liberality. The population in 1831 was 53,287, and in 1841, 63,625, but this number is now considerably increased.

LONDONDERRY ranks next to Belfast. Besides being a sea-port of considerable importance, it is the seat of a bishop's see. It is situated on the west bank of the Foyle, a few miles above the point where that river spreads into the harbor of Loch Foyle, and is distant 146 miles from Dublin. The original town built by Sir Henry Dowera about 1603-'04, was burned by Sir Cahir O'Dogherty in 1608; and the present city may be considered as deriving its origin from the London plantation, which was the immediate result of that catastrophe. The walls of Derry are described by Pynnar as "excellently made, and neatly wrought; the circuit thereof about 284 perches, and in every place the wall being 24 feet high and 6 in thickness;" and, after a lapse of more than two centuries, these fortifications retain their original form and character. The north-west bastion was demolished in 1824, to make room for a market; and in 1826 the central western bastion was modified for the reception of Walker's Testimonial; but the guns used during the celebrated siege are still preserved in their original places. The total number of cannon remaining in the city and suburbs is about fifty; and in the court-house yard stands *Roaring Meg*, so called from the loud-

ness of her report during the siege. This cannon is 4 feet 6 inches round at the thickest part, and 11 feet long, and is thus inscribed—"FISHMONGERS, LONDON, 1642."

The chief of the ecclesiastical buildings is the Cathedral. For nearly twenty years after its plantation, Derry was without a proper place of worship, part of the ruined church of Saint Augustine being employed for that purpose. At length a royal commission of inquiry was appointed, which, in 1628, reported that the corporation of London had begun to build a fair church in Derry, and in 1633 its erection was completed. This event is recorded in a tablet, which was originally placed over the door of the porch of the old cathedral, but is now over that of the belfry, bearing the following couplet :—

" If stones could speak, then London's praise should sound,  
Who built this church and city from the ground.—A. D. 1633."

The other principal places of worship are—a chapel of ease, a free church, two Presbyterian meeting-houses, a Wesleyan chapel, a Primitive Wesleyan Methodist chapel, also reformed Presbyterian, Seceding, and Independent chapels, and a Roman Catholic chapel which can accommodate 2,000 persons. The principal buildings in the city are the Bishop's palace, the Public Library and News-room, the Lunatic Asylum, the Jail, and Corporation Hall. Of its various manufactories, the chief are two great distilleries, and two-corn mills, one worked by a steam-engine of eighteen, the other by one of twenty horse-power. The public schools in Derry are, the Diocesan, the Parochial, the Presbyterian, the Meeting-house, St. Columb's, the Barracks, the Infant School; and besides these are many others, public and private. There is here a branch of the London Bible Society, the Londonderry Literary Society, and one for promoting religious, moral, and historical knowledge. There are also the Londonderry Farmers' Society and the Mechanics' Institution. The port carries on a considerable traffic, both with respect to imports of foreign and British produce, and exports. The estimated value of the exports of Irish produce is above a million sterling per annum. The population of Londonderry in 1831 was 10,130, and in 1841, 15,150.

The CITY OF ARMAGH, situated in an inland part of the country, is of considerable local importance. It is placed in the midst of a rich and beautiful district, the face of which is singularly varied by detached hills, some of which are more than a thousand feet in height. This character of country stretches from Lough Neagh in the north, to the north-western part of the county of Meath in the south, and is well watered by lakes and streams, and, generally speaking, richly furnished with wood. The city stands on a hill, which is crowned by the old cathedral, around which the town has gradually arisen. Within these few years, several handsome buildings have been erected, with cut stone fronts—the Court-house, the Jail, the Presbyterian Church, Primate Stewart's Free School, founded and liberally endowed by him, and well carried on; the National School, and the Savings' Bank. The Cathedral has been re-edified at an expense exceeding £30,000, in the pointed Gothic style, for the most part in very good taste; the organ is a remarkably fine one, and the choir excellent. The roads, in all directions, are admirable; and in the laying out of the new ones, they are carried round instead of over the hills. There is water-carriage from both Belfast and Newry by lake and canal, to within four miles of the city; the streets have flagged footways, and are well lighted with gas. About fifty years since, the population was only 1,000. It now

amounts to 13,000. The Archbishop of Armagh, Primate of all Ireland, resides close to the town, as do also a large number of clergymen attached to the Cathedral, as well as many respectable gentry. Near Armagh stands the Observatory, built and endowed by Primate Robinson, whose munificence greatly contributed to the advance of science and improvement of the whole diocese.

CONNAUGHT, the smallest of the four provinces, contains but five counties, those of Leitrim, Roscommon, Mayo, Sligo, and Galway. There are in this province large tracts of mountainous and sterile land, especially in the western parts of the counties of Galway and Mayo. The peninsula formed by the western part of the first of these counties is named CONNEMARA, and is famed for its scenery, which somewhat resembles that of Argyleshire. It may be described as a vast tract of mingled bog, lake, rocky moorland, and mountain, bounded and partially penetrated by deep inlets of the sea, resembling the fiords of Norway. The principal lake is Lough Corrib, which is full of islands, and surrounded by an extensive rocky desert, bearing no small resemblance to those of Arabia. Between this lake and the western extremity of Connemara, there is a range of tall swelling green hills, called the Twelve Pins of Bunabola, and to the north of these is an estuary famed for its wild scenery, named the Killery, many miles in length, and connected with the Atlantic by a passage only thirty feet wide. Connemara contains a small, scattered, and primitive population, unusually full of superstitious and old feudal feelings.

From the high grounds near Westport, is obtained a view of Clew Bay, a magnificent sheet of almost enclosed water, full of islands, and bounded by lofty mountains, among which the most conspicuous are Croagh, Patrick, and Nephin. The islands of Clare and Achil bound the scene towards the west. In some states of the weather, and particularly when a summer sun is calmly descending on Clare, the view of Clew Bay is one of extraordinary beauty. The islands are said by the common people to be as numerous as the days in a year, but in reality are only about a hundred. Croagh Patrick is regarded with superstitious feelings by the peasantry, as the spot where their tutelary saint was accustomed to preach.

Amidst the great tracts of wild ground in Connaught, there are a few other spots of an unusually attractive character. The scenery round Lough Allen, out of which the Shannon flows, is extremely pretty, as is also that near Boyle, at the foot of the Curlew Mountains. At Lough Gill, near Sligo, a lake bearing a strong resemblance to the upper lake of Killarney, and the little bay of Ardnaglass, into which falls the cataract of Ballycedare, are scenes of peculiar beauty. Much of the surface of Galway is flat, showing, for twenty miles together, a succession of narrow limestone rocks, like parapet walls of three feet high, placed in parallels to each other, at distances of from three to ten feet; the intermediate spaces, though apparently but a waste of rock and stone, supply the finest sheep pasture in the kingdom.

The great central limestone district of Ireland occupies the southern portion of this province, which, to the eye, forms an exception to the general character of limestone countries, appearing so exceedingly barren, that, in passing over tracts of Galway and Mayo, the traveller almost doubts whether he is not journeying over a great cemetery covered with tombstones, rather than over places where the sheep could find pasture, or the peasant plant potatoes. There are, however, some exceptions to this prevailing sterility, for nowhere are finer sheep-walks found than in some parts even of the

southern counties of Connaught. The tillage of this province is principally confined to oats and potatoes, as best suited to the shallow mountain bog-soil, which so largely prevails in the western baronies. The extreme moisture of the climate is so inimical to the growth of wheat, that, except in a few parts of Galway, Connaught cannot be said to grow its own bread-corn. There is a great export of oats and potatoes from the ports of Galway, Westport, and Sligo. With regard to husbandry, though it certainly is improving, it is yet much inferior to that of the other provinces. The landholders pride themselves on the breed of long-woolled sheep, their great source of wealth; and the celebrated Fair of Ballinasloe, where from 80,000 to 100,000 are usually sold, year after year, exhibits an improvement in this branch of rural economy. Horned cattle, and horses, especially hunters, are also bred extensively in Galway. What has been said of Munster applies in a still more aggravated degree to Connaught. The property of an absentee landlord is usually divided into portions ruinously small. The grazing farms are let in large portions, which it is the policy of the farmer not to diminish. Rents vary from £1 to £1 10s. an acre, except in the vicinity of towns, where they rise to £2 and £3; and wages are from 10d. to 1s. a day in summer, and from 8d. to 10d. in winter.

There have been many attempts to introduce the linen manufacture into Connaught, and markets for its sale were established in Sligo, Castlebar, Westport, and Galway; but though it thrives to an extent sufficient to supply the rural population, there is reason to believe that little if any linen is exported from the province. There is, from the ports above mentioned, a pretty large export of oats, whiskey, and potatoes.

The peasantry in Connaught are as poor as poverty can be without amounting to destitution; and, except in the mountain districts, their situation is daily becoming worse—so much so, that poverty in times of scarcity, which on an average occur about once in seven years, increases to destitution, and appeals to the richer members of the empire to save the laboring classes from actual starvation, become unavoidable. The food of those who are the best off is generally dry potatoes, with occasionally a herring or an egg. In Connaught, the indigent peasant is reduced to a state of greater poverty, by grasping at the temporary relief afforded by the system called by the Irish name of “gambeen,” (exchange,) of which the principle is to furnish provisions to the poor, allowing time for payment, but generally charging an exorbitant interest. This system has led to the most deplorable results.

There is a good salmon-fishery near the town of Galway, and one for cod, haak, and haddock, which, from the poverty of those engaged in it, which prevents them from providing sufficient tackling for their boats, is less productive than it might be. In some years the sun-fish, or basking-shark, are abundant off the coast of Galway, and much excellent oil is produced; but this fish is so capricious, that the fishery cannot be looked to with any certainty. There is a very productive salmon-fishery below the thriving town of Ballina, on the river Moy, from which large quantities of salmon are sent to the London market.

GALWAY, reckoned the capital of the west, and in point of population the fifth town in the kingdom, is situated in a valley lying between the bay which bears its name and Lough Corrib. The town is of considerable antiquity, and consists of streets and lanes huddled together without any regard to comfort or convenience. The whole partakes of the appearance of a Spanish town, the result, probably, of its early intercourse with Spain; and a small open space near the quay retains the name of Spanish Parade.

The principal ecclesiastical buildings are the Parish Church of St. Nicholas, founded in 1320; a Presbyterian meeting-house, and the Roman Catholic chapel. The Franciscans, Augustines, and Dominicans, have monasteries here. The chief public buildings are—the County Court House, a handsome cut-stone edifice, erected in 1815, with a portico of four Doric columns; and the Tholsel, built during the civil war of 1641. The schools in Galway are mostly under the superintendence of the Roman Catholic religious orders. There is also one on the foundation of Erasmus Smith, one belonging to the National Board, and about sixteen parish schools. Galway possesses a House of Industry, an Asylum for Widows and Orphans, a Protestant Poorhouse, and a Magdalen Asylum.

The chief manufacture of Galway is flour. There is a bleach-mill and green on one of the islands; an extensive paper-mill; and several breweries and distilleries in the town. The exports consist principally of grain, kelp, marble, wool, and provisions; the imports, of timber, wine, coal, salt, hemp, tallow, and iron. In 1840, a splendid dock was opened, from which great expectations are formed of the increase of trade. A steamer in this bay is highly necessary, for towing out vessels in adverse winds. In 1831, the population of Galway was 33,120; but in 1841, only 32,511.

Across the country, in a northern direction, and also situated at the head of a bay bearing its name, stands SLIGO, a town of a much smaller population than Galway, but more important as respects its commerce. It has carried on for several years a considerable trade, both export and import, and is still increasing, notwithstanding the bad state of its harbor. The exports are wholly limited to agricultural produce. The retail trade is extensive, articles of every description in demand being supplied to a large and populous district. The streets in the older part of the town are narrow, dirty, and ill-paved, and badly suited to the bustle of an export trade. But convenient markets have been erected, and the extension of the town by regularly-built wide streets, is expected to remedy the inconvenience and irregularity of the older parts. Some good public buildings embellish the prominent points in and about the town, and the River Garwogue, which bears the surplus waters of Lough-Gill to the bay, and turns several large flour-mills in its course, is a fine feature in the scene. The suburbs are beautiful and picturesque. The population is 15,000.

The greatest obscurity envelopes the early records of Ireland, and it is impossible to distinguish facts from fiction, in the relations of its earlier writers. It is certain, however, that the country was divided into a number of separate principalities, and that perpetual feuds were maintained with each other. Strongbow, (Earl of Pembroke,) at the request of Dermot McMorragh, King of Leinster, and under the sanction of Henry II., invaded Ireland in 1167, and a great part of the island was soon conquered by the English, who by degrees became masters of the whole country. A Parliament, which met at Dublin 1st May, 1536, declared Henry VIII. the supreme head on earth of the Church of Ireland, and annulled the Papal power. Every non-conformist was declared a traitor; but to resist the royal usurpations, confederacies were formed, and the Reformation was rendered so odious to the Irish, that it made slow progress among them. The English liturgy was first read in the churches on Easter Sunday, 1551; still the ancient faith was adhered to, and the cause of Rome became the cause of the nation. The attempt to supersede the religion taught by St. Patrick, and to coerce the people into the observance of a hostile ritual, naturally excited the national prejudices, and co-operated in raising the insurrection of Tyrone.

A general system of rebellion to shake off the British yoke was organized in 1596, and the most formidable of the rebel chiefs was O'Niel, who, disdaining the title of Earl of Tyrone, had assumed the rank and appellation of King of Ulster, and received a supply of arms and ammunition from Spain. The rebellion, however, proved unsuccessful, and terminated in the submission of O'Niel, and the further subjugation of the whole of Ireland. Misunderstandings and frequent quarrels succeeded, and continued to harass the land. Rebellion, frequently terrible and bloody in its progress and results, laid prostrate the country, and the whole energies of the people sunk beneath the unnatural contest.

The conduct of the English, from the conquest down to the present time, has been such as to invoke upon their heads the anathemas of all lovers of freedom. James I. notoriously persecuted the Irish, and estranged their affections; and during the reign of Charles I. a rebellion was the result of his cruel oppressions. Under the Commonwealth their condition was not at all improved.

On the death of the Protector, Henry, his son, was made Lord-Lieutenant; but, though he acted with vigor to maintain himself, the downfall of his brother Richard in England, and the proclamation of Charles II., were the signals for his own overthrow, and the change was hailed with manifest joy in all the great towns of the island. James II. favored the Catholics, which alarmed the Protestant party, and most of the traders and persons of wealth fled from the country with all their moveable possessions. The distracted state of Ireland at the period of the revolution in 1688, can hardly be described. The Protestants in the north proclaimed William and Mary, and James, who had sailed from Brest, with a large armament, landed at Kinsale in March, 1689. He was opposed by the English army under William, in person. A dreadful civil war broke out, but at length the battle of the Boyne, on the 1st July, 1690, decided the fate of James, who fled to France. The Irish subjects outlawed for the revolt of 1685, amounted to 300,978, and their Irish possessions to 1,600,000 acres.

In 1796, this injured people, denied the enjoyment of their dearest rights, and condemned to political disability on account of their religion, once more rebelled. The French favored them; but only a small French force ever landed, and they soon surrendered to the superior arms of Cornwallis. The insurgents fled, and were pursued with great slaughter. On the 1st January, 1801, the legislative union with Great Britain was consummated through the treachery of officials, and gross bribery on the part of Britain. The injustice of this act, which was, and yet is, universally condemned by the natives, has yet to be washed out.

Within the last 20 years, however, the condition of Ireland, in spite of all obstacles, has been improved, and the changes which have taken place, in both its political and social state, are of vast importance to its welfare. Nevertheless, Ireland is not quieted, and discontent is still felt by all classes. The causes are well understood, and arrange themselves under the several heads of political, religious, and social, all of which have sprung from the violence of usurpation, and the wrongs which wrested from the natives every natural claim to their own lands, their adopted religion, and those feelings which characterize humanity.

The miserable condition of the people, has become more generally known since the famines of 1846-47-48, in which years the potato crops almost entirely failed, and that being the great staple on which the Irish depend for subsistence, scenes of the most horrid description ensued. Thousands on thousands perished for the want of food, and thousands more were



irrecoverably ruined in health and means of future competence. No less a sum than £8,000,000 sterling was voted by parliament for the relief of the starving, and vast supplies of provisions and clothing were sent from the United States. This famine, and the misery it entailed is wholly attributable to the effects of bad government. The people are kept in poverty, and as a consequence cannot reserve aught for adverse times; the first year of famine, however, they bore comparatively well; but when it continued from year to year their resources were exhausted, and all their small comforts disappeared from their dwellings, and themselves were doomed to horrors, the naming of which curdles the blood of the coldest spectator.

The national antipathy towards everything English is deep-rooted, and the orators of the day—those patriots who beguile the people to their ruin,—take good care that this antipathy shall not die. Savage in their wrath, they impart a savageness to their hearers which tells fearfully on their morals, and the result is shown in assassinations, and other offences against persons and property, which are now of daily, nay hourly, occurrence in this unhappy country. The insurgents of 1848 were the mere tools of a party of malcontents, knowing neither the aim nor end of their abettors, but bearing along with them, and cherishing that hatred which the warm eloquence of the rebel chiefs had poured insidiously into their bosoms—a hatred deadly and lasting to England and the English.

Whatever may be the wrongs of Ireland, and however much the English, or rather British government may be implicated in these wrongs, rebellion against such a power can never obtain redress. There is but one true method in all these cases, and that is to appeal to the humanity of the people, and not to the fears of the government. But if force is to be used, let the people first unite—in union is strength—and then, perchance, they may wrest independence from Great Britain,—and finally become a nation worthy of the patriotism which still glows in the Irish mind.

## STATISTICAL VIEW OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

THE constitution and resources of the British government, a subject replete with the greatest interest, will now claim a passing notice. We have already considered the geography and geology, the natural productions, and the people in their character and numbers, in the several parts of the Empire in Europe. The relations of one part to another are more intimate in their policy and institutions, and must necessarily be explained in juxtaposition.

The greatness of this Empire is the result not only of physical but also of extraordinary moral causes. The British Islands are so located as to bear the relation to the rest of Europe of an out-post—an entrepôt, and the free institutions bequeathed to it by successive ages of wise government, have developed amazingly its resources and capacities, so as to make it not only the refuge of the oppressed of all nations, but their envy. With all its physical advantages Britain would still have laid a desert in the hands of its native, or, indeed, under the rule of any nation but the one that now

possesses it. Who can say that the Negro or Mongol races would have prospered, or even the unmixed Celtic hordes, that still in a great measure are the prominent castes in Ireland, Wales, and the northern Highlands of Scotland. The moral force alone of the Saxon could have brought such a country from its wilderness state to its present civilization, nor could any other people have produced such enlightened colonies and free nations as those which owe their origin, through England, to this important and ever spreading nation—a nation destined in all probability not only to civilize the world, but by conquest and accession to become the pervading race in all countries. From this race has sprung the trial by jury, the representative system of government, and its concern in the most important modern inventions shows its ingenuity in the arts. Its maritime enterprize and mercantile intrepidity were testified at a time when other nations were engaged only in feudal broils. Planted in England in the fifth century, and probably in Scotland many centuries before, we see this people making a continual advance ever since in political institutions and in the arts of peace. Historians point out the accidents which effected conspicuous changes; but while the feebleness or wickedness of a John may have been the immediate cause of the Magna Charta, and the passion of Henry VIII. for a beautiful woman the proximate cause of the Reformation in religion, there must have been also something in the people pressing them irresistibly towards liberty of person and of conscience, and enabling them to overcome all obstacles to the accomplishment of those objects. It was in the nature of the people to foster free institutions—and they were established. A people so active and so ingenious, could not fail to take advantage of the natural facilities which they enjoyed for manufactures and commerce. They made the best blades in the days of Cœur de Leon, and in the time of Elizabeth their sails whitened every sea. Arts driven out of other countries by ruthless bigotry, found refuge and flourished among a people who eagerly grasp at every kind of employment which promises to be useful. It is to their persevering industry, exercised by favor of so many natural circumstances, and constantly protected by free institutions, that we are mainly and most immediately to look for the source of that supremacy the British people have so long maintained.

The government of the United Kingdom is constitutional, or possesses a regular form—not in so many words, but of well recognized power in the institutions and laws of the country. The constitution is monarchical, in which the sovereign accepts the dignity under express agreement to abide by the laws, and maintain the Protestant religion. The sovereign is the nominal head or directing power in the executive of the state, the fountain of all honors, and the implied guardian of the interests of the people. He can do no wrong, but the ministers of the crown are responsible, and are amenable to penalties if an unlawful act is done.

The legislative part of the government is composed of two deliberating bodies—the House of Lords, and the House of Commons. The House of Lords is composed of a separate class or rank, which is called collectively the Peerage, and whose members enjoy certain exclusive privileges and honors. These are the Lords spiritual and temporal—the former consisting of the Arch-bishops and Bishops, and the latter, the temporal Lords, enjoy their seats from hereditary right, or in virtue of being elevated to the peerage. The number of members of the House of Lords is at the present time (1848,) 495—viz., two princes of the blood royal, two English arch-bishops, 20 dukes, 23 marquises, 135 earls, 23 viscounts, 24 English bishops,

6 Irish prelates, 216 barons, 16 representative peers of Scotland, and 28 of Ireland. The House of Commons consists of knights, citizens, and burgesses, respectively chosen by counties, cities, and boroughs, apportioned as follows :

England and Wales, for	{	Counties.....	159	}	500
		Universities.....	4		
		Cites and boroughs,.....	337		
Scotland, for	{	Counties,.....	30	}	53
		Cities and boroughs,.....	23		
		Counties,.....	64		
Ireland, for	{	Universities,.....	2	}	105
		Cities and boroughs,.....	39		
Total,.....			658		

The number of persons entitled to vote in the election of these members is probably 1,000,000, of whom about 600,000 vote for county members ; 5,000 for university members, and 400,000 for members of cities, boroughs and towns. The great bulk of the voters, as settled by the Reform Act of 1832, is composed of occupants of houses of £10 and upwards of yearly rent—in other words, the middle classes. The operative classes, by reason of not generally occupying houses of so high a rent, are ineligible to vote. The extreme duration of a House of Commons is seven years, but by reality it scarcely ever exists so long, the death of the sovereign, change of ministry, and other circumstances, causing a more frequent renewal. The parliaments of England and Scotland were united in 1707, and then called the British Parliament. The union of Ireland was carried into effect 1st January, 1801, and the parliament which sat the same month, and which included the members from Ireland, was styled the First Imperial Parliament. The parliament which assembled 29th January, 1833, was styled the Eleventh Imperial or First Reform Parliament. The following table exhibits the duration of each parliament since the union in 1801—

Parliaments.			When assembled.		When dissolved.			Existed.		
			Y.	M.	D.	Y.	M.	D.		
2d Imperial Parliament.....	Aug.	31, 1802.....	Oct.	24, 1806.....	4	1	25			
3d do. do. ....	Nov.	25, 1806.....	May	27, 1807.....	0	6	2			
4th do. do. ....	Nov.	27, 1807.....	Sept.	29, 1812.....	4	10	2			
5th do. do. ....	Nov.	24, 1812.....	June	10, 1818.....	5	6	16			
6th do. do. ....	Aug.	4, 1818.....	Feb.	29, 1820.....	1	0	25			
7th do. do. ....	April	23, 1820.....	June	2, 1826.....	6	1	9			
8th do. do. ....	Nov.	14, 1826.....	July	24, 1830.....	4	1	22			
9th do. do. ....	Oct.	26, 1830.....	April	22, 1831.....	0	5	26			
10th do. do. ....	June	10, 1831.....	Dec.	3, 1832.....	0	5	27			
11th Imp. or 1st Ref. do. ....	Jan.	29, 1833.....	Dec.	30, 1834.....	2	0	25			
12th do. 2d do. ....	Feb.	19, 1835.....	July	17, 1837.....	1	4	26			
13th do. 3d do. ....	Oct.	15, 1837.....	June	23, 1841.....	4	1	2			
14th do. 4th do. ....	Aug.	19, 1841.....	July	23, 1847.....	5	11	4			
15th do. 5th do. ....	—	—, 1847.....	—	—, —.....	—	—	—			

The two houses, with the sovereign, compose the three estates of the realm, or legislative body. The sovereign takes no personal concern in the proceedings of Parliament, further than opening or proroguing the sessions ; but the interests of the crown in Parliament are intrusted to members of the cabinet council or ministry, and by them are defended and explained. The two houses, with the sovereign, have the power to pass laws, impose taxes, borrow money, make inquiries into the management of the public revenues, or the transactions of the great officers of government, and even to bring the latter to trial, if necessary. Members of either house inquire into the manner in which all great public institutions or boards of manage-

ment are conducted, such as those for education, for purposes of charity, for the erection of lighthouses on the coast, for the construction of harbors, and generally, indeed, into all the business which is intrusted to the executive part of the government; they cannot direct what is to be done, but may always make scrutiny into it afterwards, if any error or mismanagement has taken place. The discussions on these subjects are often very warm and eager, and bring to light facts of great public importance. No act of the two deliberative bodies becomes valid as a law without the assent of the sovereign; and all propositions relating to money to be raised for the public service, must originate with the House of Commons, the Lords merely giving their assent as a matter of form, without being allowed to alter anything. This circumstance gives a much larger share of influence to the Commons than is possessed by the Lords; the former having it in their power, whenever they are dissatisfied with the measures of government, to stop the supplies of money, and bring the whole machinery to a stand.

Each of the two houses has one presiding member, whose duty it is to preserve order and see that the regulations of the assembly are attended to by the members; he is also the person through whom any communication passes between the house and the sovereign, he alone having the privilege or addressing the throne in the name of the house. Hence, in the House of Commons, this officer is called the *Speaker*; in the House of Lords he is commonly known as the *Lord Chancellor*, from another office which he holds; but the duties of the latter are quite the same as those of the Speaker of the Commons.

The executive, as already stated, is reposed in the hands of the sovereign. The dignity is hereditary in the family of Brunswick, and in the person of either male or female. Victoria I. now enjoys that office. The sovereign conducts all intercourse with the rulers of other nations, forming treaties and alliances, declaring war or concluding peace. She has the duty of protecting the persons and trade of British subjects in foreign countries. For this purpose, she has the sole appointment of the officers who perform these duties; of judges in the several courts of law; of officers in the army and navy; of public ambassadors, and of consuls at foreign ports for the safety of trade; and of the officers who levy the taxes. She has also large forces, both naval and military, at her disposal, which are stationed in different parts of the empire where she or her advisers think that they are wanted for the time. The task of managing all these extensive concerns, which would fall into confusion in the hands of one person, is deputed by the queen to a number of persons, who are denominated her Ministers, and sometimes the Cabinet. These are nominally selected and appointed by the queen herself; but as her choice would be in vain if it were to fall on men who were disagreeable to Parliament (which might in that case refuse to grant supplies for national business,) the ministry is generally chosen from among such men as enjoy a considerable share of public confidence. They have all some high state office. The chief is the *First Lord of the Treasury*, whose nominal duty is the receiving and issuing of the public money, while his actual station is that of leader of the administration; he is the first who is appointed in any ministry, and generally selects all the other members, according to his own views of their abilities, or of the influence they possess in the country or in Parliament; and any changes afterwards made are generally at his suggestion, or at least with his full assent. Next is the *Lord High Chancellor*, who presides in the highest law court of the king-

dom, and is Speaker of the House of Lords; he is chief adviser of the sovereign in all that relates to the laws of the country; and has the disposal of a great number of clerical and law offices. After him are the principal secretaries of state, who are five in number, each having a separate charge; the first is Secretary for the Home Department, after whom are the Secretaries for Foreign Affairs and for the Colonies, the Secretary at War, and the Secretary for Ireland. These, with the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and several others of the high officers of state, form what is called the Ministry, the Cabinet Council, or briefly the Cabinet; and all the measures of the executive government are settled by their deliberations.

The regular division of labor which is established in the British government, is one of its chief excellencies; because every secretary, or other officer of state, having a particular department assigned to him, the responsibility for any error or mismanagement is established at once, and may be either rectified or punished. Parliament itself has its duties; and when these are not performed to the satisfaction of the electors, the members can be dismissed at next election, to make way for others who deserve better.

The British constitution, thus slightly sketched, may be generally described as an anomaly in political science, being both professedly and in reality a mixture of all three kinds of government—monarchical, aristocratical, and democratical. Such a government would probably be found totally inapplicable in other societies; but in Britain it answers well, having grown up in conformity with the views and character of the people, and enjoying, in consequence of that conformity and of its long existence, the respect required to enable any system to work. Upon the whole, notwithstanding the Reform Acts, the aristocratic principle predominates, yet fully as much from the spirit of the people themselves as from any forms of the constitution. An unprejudiced foreigner would probably remark, that the greatest drawback from its happy working now is, the position in which it places the laboring portion of the community.

The executive government in Ireland is vested in a Lord Lieutenant, who is appointed by and dependent on the crown. He is assisted by a Privy Council, a body also nominated by the sovereign, and invested with great powers, judicial and ministerial; and also by a Chief Secretary who is always a member of the House of Commons, and more immediately the responsible member of the Irish government. The counties are under the protection of Lords Lieutenant and High Sheriffs as in England. The levy and expenditure of money for local purposes is vested in the local grand juries. There is no political government of Scotland distinct from that of Great Britain.

The judiciary of England is very complicated, and the powers of each in a great measure arbitrary and undefined. There are three distinct codes by which the Supreme Courts are regulated, viz; the Common Law of England, which is administered in the Court of Queen's Bench, Common Pleas and Exchequer; the Civil, Common and Ecclesiastical Laws, which are administered by the Ecclesiastical and Admiralty judges, and Equity, which forms the basis of pleas in the Court of Chancery. The judges of the Queen's Bench, Common Pleas and Exchequer, are the judicial assessors of the House of Lords; and make periodical circuits through the entire counties of England and Wales, where, at the assizes, they administer civil and criminal justice. The magistrates of cities and boroughs are also invested with judicial functions, and by the municipal Reform Act a uniform

system has been established in all boroughs, except London. In every county there are a number of justices of the peace, who are individually committing magistrates, and collectively act as judges at the county sessions. The most important cases, however, are left for the assize judges to determine. The sheriffs are chosen by the sovereign annually, from three persons presented for selection, and are in their own counties judges of the county courts, keepers of the king's peace, the executive officers of the Supreme Courts, and bailiffs to the crown. The coroner is chosen by the freeholders of the county. There are usually four coroners to each county who hold their offices during life. The subordinate keepers of the peace are the usual bodies of constables and police. The Lords Lieutenant are Custodes Rotulorum in their respective counties and first justices of the peace.

The laws of Scotland are, like those of England, a heterogeneous, ill-digested mass, the accumulation of ages, and derive their authority chiefly from the decisions of the supreme courts, or established custom. These are administered by the Court of Sessions, and the High Court of Justiciary. The first is the supreme civil court of law, and by virtue of its inherent supremacy, exercises the ministerial functions of the Court of Chancery, in respect to the guardianship of children, idiots and lunatics, and the property of absentees; and in all cases decides according to equity as well as law. Appeal lies to the House of Lords. The High Court of Justiciary is a criminal tribunal, and is strictly supreme, there being no appeal from its decisions. Every county is placed under a sheriff who is both judge and magistrate. There is in Scotland an officer of high rank and dignity, styled Her Majesty's Advocate, or by courtesy the Lord Advocate, who, with the assistance of the Solicitor General and several advocates-depute, superintends the whole criminal business of the country, and acts as public prosecutor in cases brought before the High Court of Justiciary. The counties have each a similar officer styled Procurator-fiscal, whose duties are confined to his own territorial limits. These functionaries always act under the Lord Advocate, and report to him all their proceedings. The orders and decrees of the Supreme Court are executed by a class of officials styled Messengers-at-arms, appointed by the Lord Lyon King at Arms. The lowest official in Scotland is the "Hangman" of Edinburgh, the only person of his profession between York and the Shetlands.

The administration of the laws in Ireland is vested in the Lord Chancellor, assisted by the Master of the Rolls; and in the twelve judges of the Supreme Courts, of King's Bench, Common Pleas and Exchequer. The twelve judges visit the counties in six circuits twice a year, for the trial of civil causes in *nisi prius*, and criminal cases of a more serious character. Minor offences are determined before magistrates at petty sessions. Stipendiary magistrates are now stationed in the large towns. The police of Ireland is very efficient, and from the faithfulness they observe in doing their duty, have become to evil doers a source of annoyance and complaint.

The revenue of the British empire has varied exceedingly of late years; from 1761 to 1774, which was a period of peace, it increased from £8,000,000 to £10,285,673; and since that time, from the various wars in which the country was engaged, the immediate expenses, and the interest of the public debts, it has continued to augment. From 1775 to 1783, which was the period of the American war, it rose from ten millions to twelve millions; and during the peace which followed till 1793, it was increased to seventeen and a half millions a year.

After this period the French revolutionary war commenced. That war was by no means unpopular with the nation; and it was besides gilded by the many splendid victories which continued to be obtained by British seamen as long as the enemy had a fleet to appear at sea. Heavy taxes for defraying the expenses of this war were therefore submitted to without remonstrance, and the public revenue rose accordingly to a very large amount. From 1794 to the peace of Amiens in 1801, which only lasted two years, the revenue was increased from seventeen and a half millions to twenty-eight millions: and from 1803 till 1816, the year after the final conclusion of peace, it had risen to £76,834,494, which was the largest sum ever raised by taxes in one year.

The sums thus raised in taxes, large as they were, did not, however, meet the expenditure of the country during these periods of war. In order to defray the great charges which arose, it became necessary also to borrow to a great amount. The following table will show the sums raised by the taxes, the sums borrowed, and the total expenditure for each of the years specified.

<i>Years.</i>	<i>Raised in Taxes.</i>	<i>Borrowed.</i>	<i>Total Expenditure.</i>
1794.....	£17,674,395.....	£5,079,971.....	£22,754,366
1801.....	28,085,829.....	33,532,159.....	61,617,988
1803.....	38,401,738.....	23,972,742.....	62,373,480
1806.....	53,698,124.....	22,358,672.....	76,056,796
1810.....	66,029,349.....	22,763,202.....	88,792,551
1814.....	70,926,215.....	52,309,445.....	122,235,660
1816.....	76,834,494.....	54,471,464.....	130,305,958

These sums will appear altogether enormous, and must give the most extraordinary idea of the resources of a government, which, while it raised such a large yearly amount in taxes, had yet credit to borrow the immense additional sums which were wanted. The whole sum which was expended in the wars of the French revolution, from 1794 to 1816, amounted to 1700 millions of pounds sterling—a sum so far beyond all ordinary dealings, that we can have little conception of its amount or value. All the mines that are at present wrought in Europe and America, (including even all the products of the Sacramento valley,) would not furnish gold and silver equal to it in less than 300 years.

The debt formed by borrowing money at different rates of interest to conduct the warlike operations of the country, has risen from small beginnings towards the conclusion of the seventeenth century, to an unparalleled amount. At the revolution of 1688, the national debt amounted to only £664,263; at the accession of Queen Anne, £16,394,702; of George I., £54,145,363; of George II., £52,092,235; at the end of Spanish war in 1748, £78,293,312; at the commencement of war in 1755, £74,571,840; at the conclusion of peace in 1762, £146,682,844; at commencement of American war in 1776, £135,943,051; at conclusion of peace in 1783, £238,484,870; at commencement of French revolutionary war, £233,733,609; at peace of Amiens in 1801, £582,839,277; at peace of 1816, £864,822,461; and at the present time the amount is £841,000,000, with an interest of £29,000,000.

The revenue which it is necessary to raise for the purpose of paying the interest of the debt, and conducting the business of the country, is derived from taxation upon a great variety of different articles, which are all, however, reduced to the following heads:

## REVENUE OF GREAT BRITAIN

*For the years ending 5th July 1847 and 1848, respectively.*

Sources.	1847.	1848.
Customs.....	£18,792,348.....	£17,888,988
Excise.....	12,733,998.....	12,263,233
Stamps.....	7,201,797.....	6,449,104
Taxes.....	4,325,732.....	4,306,703
Property Tax.....	5,491,936.....	5,411,253
Post Office.....	854,000.....	787,000
Crown Lands.....	112,000.....	71,000
Miscellaneous.....	307,621.....	230,201
Total ordinary Revenue.....	£49,819,432.....	£47,407,486
China Money.....	227,644.....	455,021
Imprest and other Monies.....	208,190.....	187,408
Repayment of Advances.....	804,843.....	422,485
Total Revenue.....	£51,060,109	£48,472,400

Of the total income of 1848, it will be observed that fully thirty millions were raised from customs and excise, and nearly seven millions from stamps. Thus the great bulk of taxation is indirect, and the really direct taxes are a mere trifle in comparison. The chief burden of the taxes likewise falls on the consumers of luxuries, as tea, wines, spirits, &c.; and these, though in some measure falling on the bulk of the people, are principally borne by the wealthy and inebriate; and as the property tax amounts to more than £5,400,000 annually, the great owners really contribute considerably of direct aid to the public income. On the whole, however, the taxes are not very unequally shared, and as every year removes them further and further from the laboring classes, the imposts are not felt to be too onerous. The customs duties are levied on nearly 1700 articles imported into the country, but a few leading articles raise nineteen-twentieths of the entire amount, and the insignificant sum raised from the remainder, acts merely as a prohibition on foreign commerce. The leading articles from which revenue is derived are tobacco, spirits, wines, &c. The duties on breadstuffs, formerly so onerous, are no longer available, the tax being now a merely nominal amount.

The whole question of import duties, with reference to an improvement in the mode of levying them, has, for some time, been under advisement, and great alterations have already been adopted, and many of the heaviest restrictions been removed from commerce. The general tariff, the corn laws, and the laws relative to navigation, have, indeed, all undergone a thorough revision, and it is to be presumed that the alterations are not final.

The total annual revenue, as above mentioned, is at present between forty-eight and forty-nine millions, and we have now to see how this large sum is spent. The first great item in the expenditure is in the form of interest on the national debt. The amount applied to this item is little short of three-fifths of the whole. It is difficult to obtain an exact idea of the complicated statements put forth by government, but it is certain that about £31,000,000 go towards liquidating and paying of the interest on this debt, and that the whole business of the country—civil, military, and naval, including charges for the royal household—is conducted for the sum of £13,000,000 to £15,000,000 per annum. The debt has been latterly increasing; in other words, the revenue is falling short of the expenditures.

The expense incurred for the personal support of the sovereign and royal family and household, is but a small item in the general expenditure of the nation. Formerly the crown possessed private revenues from lands, duties,



&c., but all such are now abandoned to the country, (chiefly under the management of the Board of Woods and Forests,) and the sovereign has a civil list of fixed sums regularly voted by Parliament. On the accession of William IV. the civil list was voted under five different classes, amounting in the aggregate to £510,000 per annum, as follows:

Class 1.—For the King's Privy Purse, £60,000; and for the Queen's, £50,000..	£110,000
“ 2.—Salaries of the Royal Household.....	130,300
“ 3.—Expenses of the Household.....	171,500
“ 4.—Special and Home Secret Service.....	23,200
“ 5.—Pensions.....	75,000
Total.....	£510,000

On the accession of Victoria, a civil list was voted, amounting in the aggregate to £386,000, with a power to the crown to grant pensions not exceeding £1,200 in any one year. The cost of the Civil Department of government does not fall much short of three millions a year, and is distributed among about 22,000 functionaries; in this, however, is included the expenses of the Irish government. The expense incurred for the colonies amounts to a like sum; and the annual expenses for ambassadors and consuls to and in foreign countries are about £300,000, and for courts of justice, nearly £800,000. Altogether the civil management of the kingdom costs £4,000,000 annually.

Next to the national debt, then, the army and navy are the greatest burden on the country; the average expense of these are, respectively, about £3,500,000 annually, or together £7,000,000, a sum equivalent to all the ordinary expenses of the United States government.

According to the terms of the constitution, a permanent or standing army is not held to be legal. It is understood that the civil power, as exerted by magistrates, constables, and police, is competent to preserve order, and that the creation of a military force is only a matter of temporary necessity. An army, however, being constantly required, both to assist the civil authority, and to protect the foreign possessions of the empire, an act of parliament, called the Mutiny Act, is passed annually, to maintain a large body of troops in regular service. Whether from this provision in the constitution or otherwise, it happens that education in military tactics is conducted on a very limited scale; the privates in the army are enlisted by small bounties from the lowest classes of the community, and very rarely, if ever, are promoted to the rank of commissioned officers. The commissioned officers, in general, belong to the aristocracy or landed gentry, and in most instances purchase their commission according to a scale of prices. Although both privates and officers are alike ill-prepared, by previous instruction, for performing the duties of their profession, such are the effects of discipline, the excellence of equipment, and other advantages, but, above all, a high tone of honor and spirit of valor, that the British army is found able to compete with forces recruited under far more favourable circumstances.

The British army on the 1st June, 1848, consisted of 2 regiments of Life Guards; 1 of Royal Horse Guards; 7 of Dragoon Guards; 4 of Light Dragoons; 4 of Dragoons; 4 of Huzzars, and 4 of Lancers—comprising the cavalry. The foot or infantry arm consisted of 1 regiment, in 3 battalions, of Grenadier Guards; 1 of Coldstream Guards; 1 of Scotch Fusileer Guards; and 1 of Rifle Brigade, each having 2 battalions; and 99 regiments of foot in 138 battalions. There were also 1 regiment of Artillery in 9 battalions; 1 corps of Engineers, and 1 corps of Sappers and Miners—altogether numbering nearly 9,000 horses and 120,000 men, of whom about

14,000 are officers and non-commissioned officers. This number was exclusive of the Indian army proper, and the several colonial regiments known as the Ceylon Rifle Regiment, the three Royal West India Regiments, the Cape Mounted Rifles, the St. Helena Regiment, the Malta Royal Fencibles, the Royal Canadian Rifles, and the Royal Newfoundland Veteran Corps. Of the British army (properly so called) from 20,000 to 25,000 men are generally stationed in Ireland; about 20,000 serve in India; from 10,000 to 12,000, including artillery and engineers, in Great Britain, and the remainder are dispersed in America, the West Indies, and the British colonies and possessions in different parts of the world. The distribution, however, varies. At the date above referred to the following was the arrangement—

<i>Stations.</i>	<i>Reg'ts.</i>	<i>Battal's.</i>	<i>Depôts.</i>	<i>Stations.</i>	<i>Reg'ts.</i>	<i>Battal's.</i>	<i>Depôts.</i>
East Indies, &c. ....	28	4	—	Ionian Islands .....	2	3	—
British America .....	9	7	—	Channel Islands .....	—	—	2
West Indies .....	7	4½	—	Malta .....	2	2	—
Africa .....	5	3	—	Spain .....	2	3	—
Australasia .....	5	—	—	England and Wales .....	26	11	46
China .....	1	—	—	Scotland .....	3	—	2
St. Helena .....	1	—	—	Ireland .....	32	2	11

The number of regiments and the compliment of men has varied considerably at different periods. During the latter years of the war which terminated in 1815, the land force embodied, including militia, yeomanry and volunteers, amounted to not less than 450,000 men. As the militia has not been called out for a number of years, the yeomanry cavalry remains the only domestic military force in Britain. The strength of this is perhaps 15,000, composed generally, as its name implies, of the yeomanry or farmers of the country. It is essentially a volunteer corps, but when on duty is under the same regulations as the army proper. The cost to government of this force is about £80,000, and at several periods, especially at Peterloo, where the Cheshire cavalry gained unenvied laurels, has shown itself a valuable adjunct to the national forces. Though all are liable to serve in the militia, that arm may be said not to exist at the present period.

The pay of a private in the horse guards varies from 1s. 9d. to 2s. 0¼d. per day; in the cavalry of the line, 1s. 4d.; in the foot guards, 1s. 2d.; and in the infantry of the line, 1s. 1d. When at home and in barracks, 6d. a day is deducted from this, for which the soldier receives three quarters of a pound of meat, and one pound of bread. The principal part of his cloths and accoutrements is furnished at the public expense; his pay, however, is subject to a deduction of 2s. 7½d. a week, in the case of privates serving in the cavalry; 1s. 1d. a week from privates in the foot guards, and 1s. 6d. from all other privates, on account of these articles.

The statements which we have made above relate entirely to the effective force of the army, which is either on active duty or ready to be so employed. But there are a great number of persons attached to the army who do no duty, though receiving pay like others. Some of these are pensioners, who have either been long in service, or have suffered by wounds, &c.

Great Britain has long been renowned as a first-rate naval power: by command of its war vessels it protects its commerce, and exerts its authority in the most remote quarters of the globe. It is usual to say that Britain possesses the "dominion of the seas;" but this is only a figure of speech. The nation possesses no acquired or vested sovereignty over the ocean, acknowledged by other powers, although at times it may forcibly compel submission. The British royal navy is recruited in much the same manner

as the army; but the constitution, by a singular anomaly, sanctions the forcible abduction of men from their private homes to serve on board of war vessels. This species of impressment, however, is only resorted to in cases of urgent necessity, as for instance during the heat of war. The sailors who enlisted are generally young men who have served an apprenticeship on board merchant vessels; and with this preparation, they form seamen of the highest qualifications; their courage, integrity, and kind-heartedness, are a lasting theme of national gratulation.

The average pay of a sailor is £2 7s. per month, with victuals, which are estimated at about £1 4s. additional. High salaries are paid to people about the dock-yards, the master-workmen receiving £250 per annum, and the artificers from 5s. to 12s. 6d. per day. During the war with France, Great Britain had upwards of 1000 ships, manned by 184,000 seamen.

The following table will exhibit the naval force of Great Britain for the year 1846\* :—

	In Commission.		Building.		In Ordinary.		Total.
	No.	Guns.	No.	Guns.	No.	Guns.	
Ships of the line .....	17	1,570	23	2,124	75	6,258	115
Frigates .....	32	1,146	15	498	73	3,066	120
Sloops, brigs and bombs. .	71	856	21	305	40	521	132
Schooners, cutters, tenders and ketches. ....	33	66	—	—	6	18	39
Steam Frigates. ....	6	60	12	120	4	40	22
Steam Sloops. ....	54	270	20	100	6	30	80
Steam Packets. ....	21	42	3	6	—	—	24
Other steamers. ....	9	18	6	12	—	—	15
Transports and troop ships.	5	70	—	—	—	—	5
Receiving ships, coast-guards, and other non-effective vessels, &c. ....	84	485	—	—	—	—	84
Total .....	332	4,583	100	3,161	204	9,933	636

The official list numbers 671, but names only 636: whole number of guns to 636 vessels, 17,481; number of men in the navy, 27,500—boys, 2,000—marines, 10,500—total, 40,000.

The number of vessels in the revenue service amounts to 72, mounting 144 guns. The British Indian navy in 1844–5, consisted of 36 vessels, of which 22 were steamers—guns, 166. The total number of steamers in the English navy, including 35 contract mail steamers, is 199. There are also eight East India mail steamers.

The progressive increase of the Royal navy, from Henry VIII.'s time to the close of the last war, is exhibited in the appended table :—

	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Navy Estimates.
1521 .....	16	7,260	—	£ No account.
1578 .....	24	10,506	6,700	—
1603 .....	42	17,055	8,346	—
1658 .....	157	57,000	21,910	—
1688 .....	173	101,892	42,000	—
1702 .....	272	159,020	40,000	1,056,915
1760 .....	412	321,134	70,000	3,227,143
1793 .....	498	433,226	45,000	5,525,331
1800 .....	757	688,744	135,000	12,422,837
1808 .....	869	892,800	143,800	17,496,047
1814 .....	901	866,000	146,000	18,786,509

\* From an official document presented in 1846, by Mr. Bancroft, to the Senate of the United States.

At the close of the last century Great Britain owned more than one-third of all the ships of the line in Europe, and now possesses nearly as many such ships as all the rest of the world together. The details will be seen in the following figures :—

	Close of last century.	Present time.
France.....	86.....	45
Spain.....	68.....	3
Russia.....	36.....	50
Holland.....	28.....	3
Denmark.....	24.....	6
Portugal.....	13.....	2
Turkey and other Mediteranean powers.....	13.....	20
Sweden.....	—.....	10
	263—63,6 per ct.	144—53,5 per ct.
Great Britain.....	153—36,4 “	125—46,5 “
United States.....		10

On the subject of the British steam-navy, P. L. Simmonds, Esq., editor of the Colonial Magazine of London, says: “Look at the already immense number of powerful steam-ships that swarm in the waters of the Mediterranean, and enter every port upon its beautiful shores; that are found careering in every sea of Europe, from the Frozen Ocean to the Bay of Biscay and the Black Sea; that have long since driven every other mode of transit out of the Euphrates and the Red Sea; that penetrate the Indus almost to its source; that ascend the Canton River, in spite of every obstacle besides myriads of war-junks, and batter down the walls of the ancient celestial cities; that are surrounding every island, and entering every harbor of the West Indies; that swarm along the shores of North America, from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the Isthmus of Darien; and that regularly transmit the rich produce of the mines of South America, from all its principal ports, to the great commercial metropolis of the world—crowded, busy London. Look at all this, and see what an element she has to sustain her onward march for an empire. At no period did Great Britain possess such a foundation for naval strength within her bosom as at present. She now possesses 3,500,000 tons of shipping, and numbers 160,000 seamen in her navy, while a fleet of 700 steamers, (more than is possessed by all the rest of Europe,) prowl along her shores.”

The subject of ocean mail steam-navigation, in which Britain surpasses every other nation, might here with propriety be enlarged upon. Space, however, can only be allotted to a mere enumeration of the details connected with the several companies engaged in this business. The ships employed are equipped as war-steamers, and are convertible to government use whenever demanded. The policy of this system is apparent, and its economy worthy of imitation. The names and peculiarities of these companies are exhibited in the annexed list:

*Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company.*—This Company has 23 steam-vessels, of 24,646 tons, 7,955 horse-power, and 1,320 men; with them the Admiralty have three contracts: 1. For carrying the mails monthly between England, Gibraltar, Malta, and Alexandria, contracting to carry four guns fit to fire, of the largest in the Navy, for £29,500 per annum; and, by another agreement, to carry a mail between Southampton and Malta, in vessels of 280 horse-power; and Malta and Alexandria, 180

horse-power, for £15,525 per annum, or 4s. 6d. per mile. 2. To carry the mails between the East Indies and China, once a month, at £160,000 per annum; providing three steamers, of not less than 560 horse-power each, and one not less than 250 horse-power, for China. 3. To convey the mails between England, Vigo, Lisbon, Oporto, and Gibraltar,—five or more, not less than 140 horse-power—for £20,500 per annum, less £3,500 if port charges in Spain and Portugal are remitted.

*Royal Mail Steam-Packet Company.*—This company has 14 vessels, of 17,069 tons, 5,457 horse-power, and 1,127 men; and two sailing vessels, 238 tons, and 30 men. They contract with the government to carry the mails between England and the West Indies, and the Gulf of Mexico, twice a month, from Southampton, for £240,000 per annum, and finding 14 steamers, 10 of 400 horse-power, and the remaining four for the colonies, only 250 horse-power. The Great Western has lately been added to this force.

*British North American Mail Company.*—This company possesses 10 ships, 13,875 tons, 5,243 horse-power, and 875 men; they contract to carry the mails between Liverpool, Halifax and Boston, and Liverpool and New-York; they have £145,000 per annum, employing nine vessels, of 400 horse-power, and one spare steamer of 150 horse-power.

*City of Dublin Steam-Packet Company.*—Has 7 ships of 3,669 tons, 1,672 horse-power, and 150 men; conveys the mails between Liverpool and Kingstown, daily, for £9,000 per annum.

*General Steam Navigation Company.*—To convey the mails from London to Hamburg and Rotterdam, twice a week, contracts with the Post-office for £17,000 per annum; they have 14 vessels—7,868 tons, 2,638 horse-power, and 314 men.

*Mona Isle Steam-Packet Company.*—Contracts with the Post-office for conveying the mails between Liverpool and the Isle of Man, twice a week, for £850 per annum; they have four vessels, 1,568 tons, 644 horse-power, and 45 men.

*South-western Steam-Packet Company.*—Has 5 vessels, 1,239 tons, 636 horse-power, and 103 men; they contract with the Admiralty to convey mails between Southampton and the Channel Islands, three times a week, at £2,000, employing three or more steamers of not less than 80 horse-power.

*Pacific Steam Navigation Company.*—Employs four vessels, 2,384 tons, 740 horse-power, 184 men—contracts to convey the mails to Panama, once a month, for £20,000 per annum.

*Halifax and Newfoundland.*—Mr. Whitney, of St. Johns, New-Brunswick, contracts to convey mails, twice a month, from April to November, and once during the four winter months, in one steam-vessel, of 100 horse-power, for £4,150 per annum.

## SUMMARY OF STEAM-VESSELS.

<i>Company.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Men.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Horse-power.</i>
Peninsular and Oriental .....	23	1,320	24,646	7,956
Royal Mail .....	14	1,127	16,069	5,457
British North American .....	10	875	13,876	5,242
General Steam .....	14	314	7,868	2,638
City of Dublin .....	7	150	3,660	1,672
Mona Isle .....	4	45	1,568	664
South Western .....	6	103	1,239	636
Pacific .....	4	184	2,384	740
Halifax, &c .....	1	30	489	260
Total .....	82	4,148	61,978	25,264

In addition to the above, the following sailing vessels are engaged in the contract mail-packet service :

*The Aberdeen and Leith Company* contract for conveying the mails weekly, between Aberdeen and Berwick, for £900 per annum, in a sailing vessel of not less than 140 tons, from October to March, inclusive.

There are six marine arsenals or dockyards—Deptford, Woolwich, Chatham, Sheerness, Portsmouth, and Plymouth. The principal foreign stations for the navy are :—Gibraltar and Malta in the Mediterranean ; Bermuda, Halifax and Quebec in North America ; Jamaica and Antigua in the West Indies ; and Trincomalee and Bombay in the East Indies.

The United Kingdom is a Protestant state, but all religions (not offensive to public or private morals) may be professed, and their different forms of worship practised, without interference from any quarter whatever. All denominations of Christians have their own churches, employ whom they please as their pastors, and are equally under the protection of the law. The empire contains several established or predominant churches, which are supported by special acts of the legislature. In England and Ireland, there is one Church, denominated the United Church of England and Ireland (separate before the union of the two countries in 1800,) being a Protestant Episcopacy. In Scotland, the established religion is Protestant Presbyterian. According to the constitution, the religion of the English church, and also the law of England, are established in every colony by the simple act of adding the territory to the crown, unless there be a special provision to the contrary. Thus the church of England prevails in all the great colonial dependencies, except Lower Canada, which is guaranteed a Roman Catholic hierarchy ; the Cape of Good Hope, which has been guaranteed Protestant Presbyterianism ; Malta, which is Roman Catholic ; and so on with some minor colonial possessions.

The affairs of the Church of England are managed by archbishops and bishops, but no step of any importance, out of the ordinary routine, can be taken without an act of Parliament, and therefore the church may be said to be governed by the legislature of the country. The sovereign is the head of the church, which is thus in intimate union with the state. The laity, except through their representatives in the House of Commons, possess no right to interfere in any shape whatever with the doctrines or practice of the church. The doctrines defined by law are contained in the Thirty-nine Articles, and the form of worship is the Book of Common Prayer. Ecclesiastically, the country is divided into dioceses, each of which is under the care of a bishop or archbishop ; the dioceses are classed under two provinces, each of which is under the charge of an archbishop. At the end of 1848, the dioceses were as follow :—Province of Canterbury—Canterbury, London, Winchester, Litchfield and Coventry, Lincoln, Ely, Salisbury, Exeter, Bath and Wells, Chichester, Norwich, Worcester, Hereford, Rochester, Oxford, Peterborough, Gloucester and Bristol, Llandaff, St. David's, St. Asaph, and Bangor. Province of York—York, Durham, Carlisle, Chester, Manchester, Sodor and Man, and Ripon. Gloucester and Bristol were separate until lately. It is designed to unite the diocese of Sodor and Man to that of Chester, and the diocese of St. Asaph to that of Bangor. Ripon and Manchester are new bishoprics. The Archbishop of York is styled " Primate of England ;" and the Archbishop of Canterbury, who ranks next to the royal family, is styled " Primate of all England." The other dignitaries of the church are archdeacons, deans, and prebendaries ; the inferior

clergy are rectors, vicars, and curates. Strictly there are only three grades, bishops, priests, and deacons, all clergymen belonging to one of these. The bishops are entitled to be addressed as "my lord," being legally spiritual peers. The revenues exigible by law for the support of the church are most unequally distributed, and the dioceses are of very unequal proportions. The same may be said of the working clergy, some of whom have wealthy and others very poor benefices, while curates or assistants are paid on the meanest scale. The following table, extracted from a parliamentary paper, shows the number of benefices or livings, parishes, churches and chapels, in each diocese.

DIocese.	No. of Benefices.	No. of Parishes.	Churches and Chapels.
St. Asaph,.....	160.....	139.....	143
Bangor,.....	131.....	179.....	193
Bath and Wells,.....	440.....	479.....	493
Bristol,.....	255.....	298.....	306
Canterbury,.....	343.....	369.....	372
Carlisle,.....	128.....	100.....	129
Chester,.....	616.....	530.....	631
Manchester,.....			
Chichester,.....	266.....	289.....	302
St. David,.....	451.....	525.....	561
Durham,.....	175.....	140.....	241
Ely,.....	156.....	158.....	160
Exeter,.....	607.....	681.....	711
Gloucester,.....	283.....	296.....	330
Hereford,.....	326.....	346.....	360
Llandaff,.....	194.....	221.....	228
Litchfield and Coventry,.....	623.....	650.....	655
Lincoln,.....	1,273.....	1,370.....	1,377
London,.....	577.....	650.....	689
Norwich,.....	1,076.....	1,178.....	1,210
Oxford,.....	208.....	207.....	237
Peterborough,.....	305.....	335.....	338
Rochester,.....	93.....	107.....	111
Salisbury,.....	408.....	451.....	474
Winchester,.....	389.....	408.....	464
Worcester,.....	222.....	230.....	260
York,.....	828.....	741.....	876
Total,.....	10,533	11,077	11,825

The revenues of the archbishops and bishops amount in the aggregate to £150,000 per annum. The largest incomes are those of the archbishop of Canterbury, about £19,000; Bishop of Durham, £19,000; Archbishop of York, £12,600; Bishop of London, £13,900; Bishop of Winchester, £11,000; and Bishop of Ely, £11,000; the others vary from about £1,500 to £5,000. The greater part of these revenues are derived from lands, or rents for grounds let on leases, and for which fines are taken at entry. The chapters of cathedrals, composed of deans, canons, and prebends, possess also large revenues; the dean of Durham, for instance, having £4,800 a year, and other members of the chapter, £32,160. The gross revenues of the deans and chapters amount to upwards of £235,000. The revenues of the inferior or parochial clergy are derived from tithes commuted into money payments, and also fees at celebrating marriages, baptisms and funerals. With respect to the parochial branch of church emoluments, we extract the following from Mr. McCulloch's Statistical Account:—"It appears that of 10,478 benefices, from which returns have been received, 292 are under £50 a year; 1629 are between £50 and £100 a year; and 1607

are between £100 and £150; so that there are 1,926 benefices under £100 a year, and 3,528, or more than a third of all the benefices in the country, under £150 a year. On many of these benefices there are no glebe houses, nor do they possess the means of erecting any. Were the spiritual duties of the poorest of these livings not performed by the clergymen of the neighboring parishes, it is difficult to see how they could be performed at all." Curates are paid by the rectors or vicars, whose servants they are; by law, their salary cannot be under £80—the average is £81.

The total revenues of the church may be stated in general terms as follow:—

Archbishops and bishops, .....	£150,000
Cathedral and collegiate churches, .....	250,000
Deans and other functionaries, .....	60,000
10,533 Parochial benefices, .....	3,100,000
Curates of resident clergy, .....	87,000
Curates of non-resident clergy, .....	337,000
	<hr/>
	£3,984,000

A proposal to introduce greater equality into ecclesiastical salaries has for some time engaged the consideration of ecclesiastical commissioners; and about ten years ago an act of Parliament was passed, appropriating revenues from certain sinecure offices in cathedrals, as they become vacant, to increase the incomes of the poorer classes of parochial incumbents.

The appointment of the clergy to benefices is as follow;—Presented by the crown, 952; by archbishops and bishops, 1,248; by deans, chapters, and ecclesiastical corporations, 2,638; by universities, colleges, and hospitals, 721; by private individuals, 5,096; and by municipal corporations, 53. This, says Mr. McCulloch, is not exactly correct, there being upwards of 200 omitted in the returns.

In 1847, the total number of congregations belonging to the established church was 11,855. At the same time there were the following number of congregations of dissenters:—Roman Catholics, 622;\* Presbyterians, 212; Independents, 1897; Baptists, 1,881; Calvinistic Methodists, 507; Wesleyan Methodists, 2,818; other Methodists, 666; Quakers, 396; Home Missionary congregations, 453; Unitarians, 360; total of dissenting congregations (exclusive of Jews,) 9,812. It is considered probable that this number includes as many actual worshippers as the 11,855 congregations of the establishment, or about 4,500,000. Thus, reckoning dissenters and members of the established church at 9,000,000, about 7,000,000 remain who cannot be said distinctly to attend any place of worship, though in most instances nominally belonging to the established church.

In Ireland, the established religion is Protestant Episcopacy, of which another branch is established in England. Thus the same doctrines, ritual, and forms of ecclesiastical government exist in these two countries, the hierarchies only being different with respect to their political status. At present, considerable alterations are in the course of being carried into effect with regard to the higher orders of the Irish clergy and their dioceses. Formerly there were four archbishoprics—Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam, with thirty-two dioceses consolidated under eighteen bishops. When the new arrangement is carried fully into effect, by the demise of

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\* Titular Roman Catholic Bishops have recently been appointed by the Pope of Rome throughout England, but they have no legal existence.



certain functionaries, there will be only two archbishops, those of Armagh and Dublin, and ten bishops. The Archbishop of Armagh is styled "Primate and Metropolitan of all Ireland;" and the Archbishop of Dublin is styled, "Primate and Metropolitan of Ireland." There have hitherto been 33 deans and 30 chapters of cathedrals. The number of parishes, including perpetual curacies, is 2,405, but many have no church, and the number of incumbents for the whole is only 1,385. According to the proposed arrangements, the money saved by the extinction of higher offices is to be appropriated to sustain churches and glebe-houses in parishes, and to execute other necessary purposes.

The revenue of the Irish archbishops and bishops, amount to £151,128 annually; and the total income of the church, including the value of glebe-lands and tithes, is about £700,000.

The Roman Catholic Church in Ireland consists of four archbishops and twenty-four bishops, with 1,013 parish priests, 1,394 curates, and other priests, (regulars) about 300; total clergy, 2,735. The number of Roman Catholic chapels is 2,205; colleges, 25; convents, 56; nunneries, 93; and monasteries, 42. After the Roman Catholic body, the chief dissenting communion is that of the Presbyterians, in the northern parts of the country. The following table shows the state of religious parties in Ireland in 1848.

PROVINCES.	Members Estab. Church.	Roman Catholics.	Presbyterians.	Other Protestant Dissenters.	Total of Sects.
Armagh.....	517,722.....	1,955,123.....	638,073.....	15,823.....	3,126,741
Dublin.....	177,930.....	1,063,681.....	2,517.....	3,162.....	1,247,290
Cashel.....	111,813.....	2,220,340.....	966.....	2,454.....	2,335,573
Tuam.....	44,599.....	1,188,568.....	800.....	369.....	1,234,336
Total.....	852,064.....	6,427,712.....	642,356.....	21,808.....	7,943,940

According to law, two days throughout the year, exclusive of Sundays, are set apart as holidays, or sacred from labor, in England and Ireland, namely, Christmas and Good Friday.

Protestant Presbyterianism, according to a polity introduced from Geneva, by Knox, was established in Scotland, by act of Parliament, in 1560, a few years after the Roman Catholic Church had been completely dismembered and suppressed. The history of the country describes the struggles of this form of church government with Episcopacy, during the greater part of the seventeenth century. Shortly after the Revolution, an act of Parliament of William and Mary, in 1690, re-established Presbytery on the model of a statute of 1592. According to the plan thus established, and never afterwards materially altered, the clergy of the Church of Scotland are all equal in rank, and are officially ministers of parishes. To the church belongs a body of lay functionaries called elders, each church having several, who assist the clergymen at the communion, visit the sick, and generally act as a vigilant ecclesiastical police. This incorporation of laity with the church has given it a remarkably secure footing in the affections of the people. The ecclesiastical community is governed by a series of courts—the lowest being the kirk-session in every parish, composed of the minister and elders; the next is a court composed of the clergy of a division, called a presbytery, and an elder from each parish; the next is a synodal court, composed of functionaries from an aggregation of presbyteries; and the highest is the General Assembly, composed of delegates from the presbyteries, and which meets annually at Edinburgh. Constant residence in their parishes is obligatory on the clergy.

A secession from this church, which is styled the Free Church of Scotland, has lately been recognized by act of Parliament, and has numerous followers. Among its chief supporters was the late Rev. Thomas Chalmers, D. D., one of Scotland's most eminent divines. Though belonging to a distinct communion, this section of Presbyterians maintains equal rights and privileges with the older church—the preference being left with the parishes.

The parochial clergy are supported by money stipends levied from the heritors or landowners, on the principle of commuted tithes or teinds. The amount of stipends yearly, depends on the average market value of corn, the averages being called *fiars*, which are struck annually by a jury in every county. Each minister being entitled to a certain quantity of grain, the value of the quantity, according to the *fiars*, is paid in money. If the teinds in the hands of the heritors be not all uplifted, the stipend is liable to be increased at the end of every twenty years. The gross amount of teinds, paid to the clergy annually, is about £150,000. The total income of the church, including value of glebes and manses, is calculated at £275,000. In some parishes the exigible stipend is so small, that it is made up to a minimum of £150 by government. Among the largest stipends are those paid to the eighteen parish ministers of Edinburgh, who receive about £500 each, levied by a peculiar law as a money-tax from the inhabitants.

In Scotland, no secular days, such as Christmas and Good Friday, are legally set apart as holidays, the Scottish church recognising no saint's days or holidays whatsoever. But in each parish there are one or two fast days in the year, previous to the celebration of the communion.

Scotland abounds in dissenters, the bulk of whom are only separatists from the church, and, under various names, profess the same doctrine and formula. Besides these dissenters, there is a considerable body of Protestant Episcopalians, in communion with the church of England; also Roman Catholics and Independents. The number of congregations belonging to the Established Church, and various dissenting bodies, may be summed up as follows:—Established Church, 160; United Associate Synod, or Secession Church, and other Presbyterians, 750; Independents, 300; Episcopalians, 120; other Protestant sects, 70; Roman Catholics, 600.

England is almost the only country in Europe in which there is no public or general system of elementary education. For the instruction of her clergy and gentry, she has several great public classical schools, among which are those of Winchester, Westminster, Eton, Harrow, Charterhouse and Rugby, and also two great universities, Oxford and Cambridge. To these have lately been added the University of London, consisting of two colleges, founded and endowed by private subscription, and named University College and King's College; the Durham University, founded and endowed by the Bishop and Chapter, and St. David's College at Lampeter in South Wales, founded by Dr. Burgess the Bishop of St. David's, for the education of Welsh Clergymen. There are also colleges founded by the dissenters; those of Haileybury and Addiscombe, belonging to the East India Company, and Sandhurst Royal Military College and several others. But she has no national establishment, like those which exist in Prussia, Holland, and other countries. Elementary instruction is given to the children of the poorer classes by endowed and charity schools and the children

of the middle classes are chiefly educated at schools of private teachers.\* There are in England about 4,200 endowed schools, 18,000 unendowed schools, and a large number of Sunday-schools, educating 1,500,000, or one tenth of the entire population, instead of the sixth, which Prussia has shown to be the proper amount of school-attenders. Thus England is shown to enjoy little more than a half part of the proper amount of education, even supposing the education she did enjoy to be good.

Of late, however, schools have been opened, particularly in connection with factories, mechanics' institutions, and by subscription. At present, a considerable proportion of the humbler order of schools are in connection with two great rival societies—the British and Foreign, and the National, both of whose head establishments are in London. Recently, an annual grant of £30,000 has been made by Parliament, to enable the privy-council to encourage elementary instruction in such schools as will submit to the supervision of an inspector. Religious sectarian differences have as yet frustrated every other step towards the establishment of a national system of education.

“That the existing provision for popular instruction,” says Mr. Simpson, in his incomparable work on “National Education in Great Britain,” “is deficient in quantity, and in too many cases, still more defective in quality, must be admitted by all who are acquainted with the actual state of the country. The intellectual condition of the agricultural districts has been well described by a powerful and original writer as ‘a gloomy monotony;—death without his dance.’ Shut out from every thing that can sustain or ennoble an intelligent nature, the peasantry of England have long since displayed, in unparalleled degradation, the full effects of knowledge denied, and have now sunk into a state of mental inanition and semi-barbarism, from which, it is to be feared, the present generation can never be recovered. Rude, selfish, superstitious and profane;—their sense of right and wrong limited and often perverted; insensible to enjoyments of a higher order than those which arise from the grosser forms of sensual gratification; and scarcely ever looking beyond the apparent interests of the present hour, the great mass live and die without an effort to raise themselves above the lowest conditions of animal existence.

“In the towns a different state of things prevails, yet one scarcely less to be lamented, and probably more perilous to the peace of the community. The bulk of the laborers still remain in utter and hopeless ignorance; while the better class of artisans, only partially enlightened, are seldom found capable of enjoying a scientific lecture, a useful book, or a calm political disquisition.”

The chief educational establishment in Ireland is Trinity College in Dublin; and latterly a collegiate institution for conferring the higher branches of instruction has been established in Belfast. Elementary education has in recent times made great advances in this part of the United Kingdom. Maynooth College is an ecclesiastical school endowed by the state in favor of the Catholics. In 1831, there was established by act of Parliament a national system of education, the main feature of which is an arrangement by which the children are separated at certain times, and taught religion by their respective pastors—the necessary funds being provided by the state.

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\* It is believed that, at this moment, the incomes of the estates and other property left for educational purposes, would amount, if properly managed, to £400,000 a year.—[*M. Culloch.*]

By this means it was hoped that the great body of the people, and more particularly the children of the poorer class of Catholics, would at length be brought within the pale of education. We need not say how differently the plan has been regarded by various parties, both in Ireland and in Britain. The national board consists of nine commissioners chosen from both the Roman Catholic and Protestant bodies—the Roman Catholic and Protestant archbishops of Dublin being among the number. The commissioners receive from the public purse, and expend annually, the sum of £50,000.

Besides this great national system of elementary instruction, the country possesses several religious or charitable associations for promoting education among the poorer classes: of these the principal are the Kildare Place Society, and the Church Education Society. The Roman Catholic body also supports a considerable number of schools. The following statistics are taken from President Bache's Report, and will prove interesting.

"Number of daily schools.....	9,657
Number of daily schools supported wholly by payments from the children.....	5,653
Number of daily schools supported wholly or in part, by endowments or subscription.....	4,004
	{ The National Board..... 892
	{ Association for discountenancing vice..... 203
Number of schools in connection with, or receiving support from.....	{ Erasmus Smith's Fund..... 115
	{ Kildare Place Society..... 235
	{ London Hibernian Society... 618
Number of daily schools of which the books containing lists of the children were produced.....	8,886
Number of children on the books of these schools.....	{ Males..... 353,809
	{ Females..... 223,900
	{ Sex not specified..... 5,700
Total.....	583,413
Number of schools of which no lists were produced.....	771
Computed number of children under daily instruction in such schools.....	50,886
Computed total number of children under daily instruction.....	633,946

From the foregoing table it appears that not more than about eight per cent. of the population of Ireland are in attendance upon school; whereas, if education were sufficiently prized, from twenty to twenty-five per cent. of the population would be in course of instruction.

The number of children between the age of five and twelve years is rather more than 18 per cent.

The present population of Ireland probably amounts to 8,500,000. Upon this number, eighteen per cent. would give 1,500,000 children to be educated; of whom 1,200,000, or, at the very lowest computation, 1,000,000, belong to those classes for the education of whose children it is the especial duty of the State to afford peculiar facilities. In this view of the subject we have not taken into account the children between three years old and five years, although in our opinion infant schools ought to be provided for this portion of the national offspring. In this paper we have not attempted any separate notice of the infant schools at present existing in Ireland, because they are not sufficiently numerous to obtain a place in our general classification. To provide a suitable education for one million of children, would probably cost above £300,000 per annum; and herein lies one of the main difficulties which terrifies statesmen. The same minister who cheer-

fully asks from Parliament above a million and a half sterling every year to provide a military and police force for the purpose of coercing the people of Ireland to the observance of order, would shrink from the duty of proposing an annual grant of £200,000 to instruct the rising generation in their duties as subjects and citizens."

Scotland possesses five colleges or universities for the higher branches of instruction: being those of Glasgow, St. Andrew's, King's College, and Mareschal College, Aberdeen, and Edinburgh. Education at these institutions is generally conferred on a more liberal and less expensive scale than at the universities of England. Scotland has been long distinguished for its parochial institutions for elementary instruction, and also for its grammar-schools or academies in the chief towns, which serve as preparatory gymnasia for the universities. Each parish (some parishes in towns excepted) is provided with a school at the expense of certain land-owners or heritors, in virtue of an act of Parliament passed in 1696, re-establishing statutes formerly in existence. Within the last forty years, the parish schools have been almost superseded in some quarters by the establishment of voluntarily-supported institutions, better suited to the wants of the age.

In a report to Parliament, the number of schools in Scotland was stated as follow:—Parochial schools, 1,047; pupils attending them, 68,293; total emoluments of teachers, £53,339. Voluntarily-supported schools, 3,995; pupils attending them, 151,160. It appears from this that there were 219,453 children receiving instruction, (not including the attendance of Sunday-Schools,) and that of these only 68,293, or a little more than one-fourth, were educated at the parochial schools. There are 5,042 schools, and of these only 1,047, or about one-fifth, were parochial establishments. The publication of this report caused considerable surprise, for it was generally believed that the great bulk of the juvenile population were instructed in the parish schools. A great difference was found between the attendance of males and females. Taking the entire attendance on the schools, there were 132,489 males, and 89,964 females. The result of the inquiry seems to be, that about one in nine of the population in Scotland attends school.

The generally imperfect instruction among the humbler orders of society, in all parts of the United Kingdom, is strikingly manifested in the returns of criminal commitments. On this interesting topic we extract the following results of an inquiry, instituted with respect to education and crime, and lately embodied in a pamphlet read before the Statistical Society of London, by Rawson W. Rawson, Esq.

"1st. That only 10 in 100 of the criminal offenders committed for trial in England and Wales, are able to read and write well; and of these, only 4 in 1,000 have received such an amount of instruction as may be entitled to the name of education; and that these proportions are greatly below the average standard of instruction among the general population.

"2d. That these proportions are considerably higher in Scotland, and lower in Ireland; and the evidence appears to establish that the degree of instruction possessed by criminal offenders, is an indication of that possessed by the general population in the same districts.

"3d. That above one-third of the adult male population of England cannot sign their own names, and that from one-fifth to one-fourth can neither read nor write.

"4th. That these proportions are much more favorable than in France or Belgium, where one-half of the youths at the age of eighteen could

neither read nor write. The proportion of wholly ignorant criminals in those countries is correspondingly greater than in England.

“5th. That in England, instruction is twice as prevalent among male as among female criminals, and one-half more prevalent among males in the general population than among females. That in Scotland and Ireland it is three times as prevalent among the male criminals.

“6th. That this unfavorable condition of females in these two countries is further confirmed by the fact, that the proportion of female to male criminals is greater than in England; and it may be traced to the circumstance of the number of girls at school in those two countries being very small in comparison with the number at school in England. In comparing the three countries, the number of female criminals is found to be exactly in the inverse ratio to the proportion of females at school.

“7th. That education has a greater influence among females than among males, in restraining them from the commission of crime.

“8th. That instruction prevails, upon an average, to a greater extent among the agricultural than among the manufacturing counties of England; but that the agricultural counties in the east, east-midland, and south-east, are greatly below the average.”

To pass over the great religious and benevolent institutions without remark, would be to omit notice of one of the great distinguishing features of Britain. First in all enterprises for the amelioration of the political, social, and moral condition of mankind, and ever looking forward to the redemption of the heathen throughout the world, societies having these objects in view, were early instituted in every part of the country. Their efforts have been mighty, and the results are known to the world. But this is not the place to enquire into this subject, further than to sum them up; and, indeed, our space will allow of nothing more extended. The following summary presents the respective incomes of the principal societies, calculated upon the average of the past three years, 1846, 1847 and 1848—the object of each is fully designated in their names:—British and Foreign Bible Society, \$575,000; Church Missionary Society, \$585,000; Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, \$475,000; Society for promoting Christian Knowledge, \$450,000; Society for building and repairing Churches, \$120,000; Church Pastoral Aid Society, \$225,000; British and Foreign School Society, \$75,000; Religious Tract Society, \$285,000; Wesleyan Methodist Missionary Society, \$580,000; London Missionary Society, \$375,000; Baptist Missionary Society, \$140,000; London City Mission, \$70,000; Methodist New Connection Mission, \$15,000; Newfoundland Schools Society, \$20,000; London Society for the Propagation of the Gospel among the Jews, \$11,500; Colonial Church Society, \$20,000; Foreign Aid Society, \$26,250; Home Missionary Society, \$40,000; Irish Evangelical Society, \$12,500; Colonial Missionary Society, \$12,500; Naval and Military Bible Society, \$42,500; Christian Instruction Society, \$3,000; Indigent Blind Visiting Society, \$3,500; Protestant Association, \$7,500; Sunday School Union, \$8,000; Adult Deaf and Dumb Institution, \$4,500; British and Foreign Sailor's Society, \$6,000; British and Foreign Anti-Slavery Society, \$9,250; Orphan working School, \$62,500; New Infant Orphan School, \$14,000; Clergy Orphan Corporation, \$22,500; Friends of Foreigners in Distress, \$12,500; Trinitarian Bible Society, \$7,500. These sums are reduced from sterling at \$5 to the sovereign, and in the gross amount to \$3,860,750. But these are only a moiety of the

valuable institutions, and altogether separate from the charitable corporations of a local character, or those designed for personal relief. It has been estimated that, in the aggregate, the whole number of societies of this description have funds annually contributed to the amount of no less a sum than \$30,000,000—a sum equal to the whole ordinary expenses of the United States' government. These institutions are chiefly connected with the Church of England. Others belong to the Roman Church, which are equally on a magnificent scale, but of which no details are given.

The manufactures of Great Britain surpass in extent and variety those of any other country; and from the superior character of its machinery, the economizing of time, and the refined skill of its workmen, the manufactures are generally produced at a lower rate, and of better quality, than in countries more favorably situated with respect to the production of raw materials.

The cotton manufacture is the most extensive of the whole, both with respect to the capital which it involves, and the number of people to whom it gives employment; it is supposed to form one-fourth part of the total industry of Britain. The number of work-people in its various departments (reckoning spinners, weavers, bleachers, &c.; engineers, smiths, and others engaged in the works,) is estimated at 1,700,000. The capital engaged in this large branch of manufacture at present is reckoned at about £40,000,000, and the total value of the goods annually produced is believed to be between £30,000,000 and £34,000,000. The raw material, or cotton wool, is brought chiefly from America, and a part also from the East Indies and Egypt. The chief seats of this manufacture are Manchester, Glasgow, and Paisley; and the magnificent apparatus of factories, machinery, and warehouses, with which these cities are filled, for this sole business, are the astonishment of all visitors. The cotton manufacture has latterly been greatly impeded in its tendency to increase by the establishment of cotton factories in Germany, Switzerland, and the United States, in the two first of which countries labor or food is cheaper than in Britain, and consequently goods are there produced at a somewhat cheaper rate.

The woollen manufacture was the earliest established in England; it gives employment to above half a million of people. The goods manufactured are valued at twenty millions; the finer qualities of the raw material are imported from Germany, or from Australia; the coarser are produced at home. This manufacture, particularly the finer kinds, is chiefly carried on in the west and north of England; both fine and coarse fabrics are now made at Galashiels in Scotland; and Kilmarnock and Stirling drive a thriving trade in carpets, bonnets, &c. In the finest kind of broadcloths, the Prussians are said still to excel the English.

The silk manufacture has been carried on in this country for a long period, having been introduced in the fifteenth century by emigrants from France. It was for many years confined chiefly to Spitalfields in London, and to Coventry. The quantity of silk for working, annually imported, is about three and a half millions of pounds. The consumption of silk goods at home is large. The annual produce of the manufacture is now estimated at £10,000,000; and it is supposed to give employment to about 300,000 work-people. Its chief seats are Spitalfields in London, Coventry, and latterly Manchester, Paisley, and Glasgow, where some of the most beautiful fabrics are now made.

The leather manufacture is of considerable importance. The value

of the different articles of which it forms the material, is estimated at £20,000,000; this includes gloves, saddlery, boots and shoes, &c. The increase of this trade in late years has been very great; hides are imported from all quarters of the world, and the quantity has doubled within a few years.

Iron, cutlery, and hardware, forms one of the manufactures in which Britain particularly excels. The abundance of her mines of iron, copper, tin, lead, and coal, and the easy access which can be had to them at all points by sea, river, canal, and railroad, give facilities which are possessed by no other country. The annual value of the manufactured goods is estimated to be above £26,000,000, and employment is given to 420,000 men in the working of copper, brass, pewter, steel, tin, and other metals. The chief seats of the manufacture of the finer and more skilled articles, are Birmingham, Sheffield, and the immediate vicinity; and from these districts metal goods of all descriptions, implements of war, and the most elegant ornaments of peace, are despatched to all parts of the world. For heavy cast-iron goods, cannon, parts of machinery, &c., Carron, in Scotland, has been long celebrated.

The earthenware, china, and glass manufactures, rank next to those we have mentioned. The number of people employed cannot be easily estimated; but as no money has to be sent abroad to purchase any part of the material of these works, the whole proceeds of the goods go to pay wages at home. The annual value of the glass manufactured is about four and a half millions, and that of the pottery and earthenware about three and a half.

The whole value of the manufactures of all kinds produced annually in Great Britain, is reckoned to be about £180,000,000.

The following table will exhibit the localities, in which the various manufactures are principally carried on:

#### SEATS OF THE MANUFACTURES.

*Iron and Iron Foundries.*—Merthyr-Tydvil, &c., Trevechin, Pont-y-pool, Upper Llanover, and Aberystwith, in Wales; Wednesbury, Bilston, West Bromwich, Shrewsbury, Dudley, Stourbridge, Bedlington and Bishop Auckland, Sugley, Long Benton, Rotherham, Whitechurch, &c., in England.

*Tin and Copper.*—Swansea, Panteague, Llanvrechva, Rogerston, and Margam.

*Engines and Machinery.*—Soho, Bertley, Sunderland, Newcastle, Greenwich, Dyffryn-Clydach, Llanidloes, Manchester, Salford, and Liverpool.

*Hardware, Cutlery, &c.*—Sheffield, Birmingham, Wolverhampton, Chorlton, Warrington, Prescott, Staffordshire generally, Ashton, Wolverley, Cradley, Beverley, Yardley, and Wells.

*Plated Goods.*—Sheffield, Birmingham, and London.

*Jewelry and Plate.*—London, Birmingham, Derby, Liverpool, and Chester.

*Watches, &c.*—Clerkenwell, Liverpool, Coventry, and Chester.

*Nails.*—Staffordshire and Worcestershire generally.

*Needles.*—Reddeck, Feckenham, Whitechapel, (London;) Ipsley, Studley, Alcester, Sambourn, and Hathersage.

*Pins.*—Birmingham, Gloucester, Bristol, Warrington, &c.

*Cotton Fabrics.*—Manchester, Blackburn, Bolton, Oldham, Crompton, Salford, Preston, Wigan, Bury, Chorlton, Rochdale, Saddleworth, Macclesfield, Lancaster, Kendal, &c.

*Woollen Cloths.*—Halifax, Leeds, Bradford, Huddersfield, &c., in York; Trowbridge, Frome, Bradford, (Wilts.) Stroud, Tiverton, Wellington; and generally in Wiltshire, Somersetshire, Gloucestershire, and Yorkshire.



- Stuffs, and other Woollen Goods.*—Norwich, Huddersfield, Durham, Bernard Castle, Barnsley, Kendal, Kirkland, Milnthorpe, Axminster. Ashburton; and a number of places in Norfolk, York, Durham, Northumberland, Devon, and in several of the Welch counties.
- Carpets.*—Kidderminster, Bridgworth, Wilton, Spratton, Dewsbury, Startforth, Durham, and Bernard-Castle; and several towns in Lancaster.
- Flannels.*—Rochdale, Newton, Oswestry, Church-Stretton, and Worthen.
- Blankets.*—Witney, Wakefield, &c.
- Hosiery.*—Leicester, Nottingham, Derby; also in Gloucestershire and Surrey
- Lace.*—Nottingham, Radford, Mansfield, Sutton-in-Ashfield, Basford, Derby, Leicester, Melton-Mowbray, and throughout Nottinghamshire; and somewhat in Northampton, Devon, and Gloucester counties.
- Linen.*—Barnsley, Leeds, Staincliffe, Ewecross, Knaresboro', Ripon, York, Stockton-upon-Tees, Hurworth, Aycliffe, Kendal, Kirby-Lonsdale, and in a number of places in Yorkshire, Somersetshire, &c. Also in many parts of Ireland.
- Sacking, Sailcloth, &c.*—Crew-Kerne, Bridport, Maidstone, Liverpool, Warrington, Treckleton, Hull, Whitby, and most of the seaport towns.
- Silk.*—Spitalfields, Coventry, Huddersfield, Macclesfield, Manchester, Salford, Derby, and in several places in Essex, Somerset, Surrey, Suffolk, Flint, Northampton, and Norfolk.
- China and Earthenware.*—Burslem, Etruria, Stoke-upon-Trent, and Staffordshire generally; Colebrook-dale, Derby, Lambeth, Bristol, Newcastle, Chesterfield, &c.
- Glass.*—Newcastle, Gateshead, South Shields, Bishop-Wearmouth, Birmingham, Ravenshead, Bristol, Dudley, Stourbridge, Leeds, Manchester, London, Nailsea, Witchwood, &c.
- Hats.*—Southwark, Frampton, Cotterell, Winterbourne, Bitton, and several other towns in Gloucester and Derby; Oldham, Atherstone, Rudgeley, Bristol, Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, and Newcastle-under-Lyne.
- Shoes.*—Northampton, Wellingbro', Irthlingborough, Kettering, London, Stafford, &c.
- Gloves, (leather.)*—Worcester, Woodstock, Yeovil, London, &c.
- Paper.*—Maidstone, Wycombe, Norton-Chenies, Cheddar, Holywell, &c. &c.
- Sugar-Refining.*—Whitechapel, (London;) Liverpool, &c.
- Porter Brewing.*—London, Dublin, &c.
- Tanning and Leather Dressing.*—Bermondsey, Newcastle, Bristol, &c.
- Soap.*—Liverpool, London, Bristol, Runcorn, Newcastle, Brentford, Dudley, Hull, &c.
- Colors from Lead.*—Monyddmaen and Newcastle.
- Gunpowder.*—Dartford, Waltham, Sedgewick, and Longdales, &c.
- Alkali.*—Newnham, in Northumberland.
- Comb-Making.*—York, Sheffield, Birmingham, Kenilworth, Greenwich, &c.
- Gun-Flints.*—Brandon, in Suffolk.

The wealth and enterprise of the most distinguished commercial nations of ancient or modern times, of which history has transmitted us the record, sink into insignificance when compared with the commercial greatness of Britain. The inland commerce is, perhaps, the richest, the most extensive, and the most active, that exists in any country; while the foreign trade extends to every accessible region of the world. Every article manufactured in the country, that will command a sale in a foreign market, is exported, and its value returned either in money or goods. The exports from different countries, according to a return made to the British Parliament, affords the following details of British commerce for the year ending 5th May, 1847:

## IMPORTS.

ARTICLES.	Quantity.	ARTICLES.	Quantity.
Brandy.....gals.	2,557,226	Indian meal.....cwt.	437,275
Bacon.....cwt.	16,440	Lambs.....cwt.	2,867
Bark.....cwt.	421,649	Molasses.....cwt.	602,986
Beef, salted.....cwt.	171,733	Nutmegs.....lbs.	446,490
Butter.....cwt.	290,960	Oxen and bulls.....cwt.	18,824
Broadstuffs, silk or satin.....lbs.	145,933	Oats.....qrs.	1,000,868
Bandanas, and other silk handkerchiefs.....pcs.	549,837	Opium.....lbs.	151,849
Cheese.....cwt.	364,486	Pork, salt.....cwt.	111,196
Cocoa.....lbs.	2,321,851	Palm oil.....cwt.	408,537
Coffee.....cwt.	51,651,601	Pepper.....lbs.	6,383,148
Cows.....cwt.	26,945	Quicksilver.....cwt.	2,090,401
Calves.....cwt.	3,570	Rice.....cwt.	995,328
Cassia Lignea.....cwt.	1,109,398	Ribands.....lbs.	212,908
Cinnamon.....cwt.	340,675	Rum.....gals.	3,894,527
Cloves.....cwt.	165,504	Silk, raw.....lbs.	4,204,858
Cape wine.....gals.	230,152	Sheep.....cwt.	95,402
Cotton wool.....cwt.	4,042,222	Sugar, refined.....cwt.	70,039
Eggs.....cwt.	65,096,305	“ unrefined.....cwt.	6,067,654
Flour.....cwt.	4,062,955	“ Brit. Am.....cwt.	2,227,995
Flax.....cwt.	1,146,456	“ Mauritius.....cwt.	922,536
French wines.....gals.	473,038	“ East India.....cwt.	1,352,352
Grain, wheat.....qrs.	1,329,712	“ foreign.....cwt.	1,546,000
Gloves.....pairs.	2,210,497	Sheep and lambs' wool.....lbs.	59,192,335
Guano.....tons.	93,251	Swine and hogs.....cwt.	3,283
Goat-skins, undressed.....cwt.	493,206	Tallow.....cwt.	1,121,622
G. Brandy.....gals.	445,866	Tea.....lbs.	51,227,400
Hides, tan.....lbs.	1,339,183	Tobacco, unmanufactured.....cwt.	50,525,420
Indian corn.....qrs.	1,677,996	Tobacco & snuff manufac.....cwt.	1,998,024
		Wines.....gals.	6,885,745

## EXPORTS.

The aggregate value of the exportations of British and Irish produce and manufactures, during the same period, amounts to £51,563,846. The following are the prominent articles and their values :

ARTICLES.	Value.	ARTICLES.	Value.
Butter.....	£178,618	Machinery.....	£1,133,094
Candles.....	45,430	Iron and steel.....	4,361,719
Cheese.....	26,843	Copper and Brass.....	1,752,283
Coals and culm.....	932,588	Lead.....	165,594
Cotton manufactures.....	17,881,923	Tin.....	130,232
Cotton yarn.....	7,343,203	Tin plates.....	539,698
Earthenware.....	818,189	Salt.....	241,769
Herrings.....	226,469	Silk manufacture.....	861,648
Glass.....	276,947	Soap.....	149,087
Cutlery and hardwares.....	2,181,014	Refined sugar.....	399,916
Leather.....	328,430	Sheep or lambs' wool.....	350,615
Linen manufacture.....	2,893,254	Woollen yarn.....	983,208
Linen yarn.....	788,373	Woollen manufacture.....	6,573,697

The foregoing figures may serve to furnish some idea of the immense extent of the commercial intercourse and traffic of Great Britain with all parts of the world, and to prove, in a degree, the efficacy of the measures passed of late years for the emancipation of trade in general from the restrictions by which its operations were obstructed.

The distribution of the foreign trade of the kingdom among the several seaports may, in part, be ascertained by a reference to the amount of duties collected at each custom-house. In thus determining the relative importance of the trade of a port, it ought, however, to be kept in view, that a very considerable export trade may be carried on from a port where a very trifling amount of import duties is collected; and it must also be understood that the ports, respectively, take a different order of importance in regard to the shipping and tonnage belonging to each. In the following table we have arranged all the ports in the order of the amount of duties collected:

## ENGLISH PORTS.

London,	Falmouth,	Swansea,
Liverpool,	Shoreham,	Faversham,
Bristol,	Rochester,	Beaumaris,
Hull,	Fowey,	Woodbridge,
Newcastle,	Colchester,	Cowes,
Gloucester,	Gweek,	Llanelly,
Plymouth,	Boston,	Arundel,
Whitehaven.	Newhaven,	Scarsbro,
Sunderland,	Newport,	Padstow,
Exeter,	Weymouth,	Harwich,
Chester,	Barnstable,	Lyme,
Goole,	Poole,	Cardigan,
Yarmouth,	Grimsby,	Aberystwith,
Stockton-upon-Tees,	Ramsgate,	Whitby,
Lynn,	Berwick-upon-Tweed,	Clay and Blackney,
Southampton,	Cardiff,	Chichester,
Portsmouth,	Bridgewater	Chepstow,
Dover,	Rye,	Wells,
Fleetwood,	Wisbeach,	Deal,
Lancaster,	Bridport,	Ilfracombe,
Ipswich,	Maldon,	Southwold,
Truro,	Bidiford,	Scilly Isles,
Carlisle,	St. Ives,	Aldborough,
Douglas,	Milford,	Bridlington,
Penzance,	Dartmouth,	Leigh.

## SCOTCH PORTS.

Leith,	Montrose,	Kirkaldy,	Stornoway,
Glasgow,	Grangemouth,	Inverness,	Stranraer,
Greenock,	Dumfries,	Irvine,	Lerwick,
Port Glasgow,	Bolness,	Kirkwall,	
Dundee,	Banff,	Wick,	
Aberdeen,	Ayr,	Campbelltown,	

## IRISH PORTS.

Belfast,	Londonderry,	Wexford,	Galway,
Cork,	Limerick,	Newry,	Westport,
Dublin,	Drogheda,	Coleraine,	Dungarvon.
Waterford,	Sligo,	Dundalk,	

The greatest part of the export trade is carried on with the United States, Germany, China, the Colonies in North America, West and East Indies, &c., Holland, Italy, Russia, Brazil, France, Portugal, Turkey, Hayti, and foreign West Indies, Spain, &c., which constitute the chief consumers of British manufactured articles. In minor proportions they are sent to all other countries to an annual aggregate of from fifty to sixty millions sterling.

The vast size of the British Mercantile Navy will be recognized in the following tables, which is taken from De Bow's Commercial Review for October, 1848.

#### 1.—COMMERCIAL MARINE OF GREAT BRITAIN, 1844.

	Steam vessels.		Other vessels.		Crews.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.	
United Kingdom .....	397	113,232	23,253	2,994,166	170,162	
Guernsey, Jersey and Man. 3....		485	763	50,226	5,559	
Total.....	900	113,677	24,016	3,044,392	175,691	

#### 2.—VESSELS AND CREWS ENGAGED IN THE FOREIGN TRADE, 1844.\*

	DOMESTIC.			FOREIGN.			TOTAL.
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.	Ves.	Ton.	Crews.	
Inward....	19,687	3,647,463	195,728	9,608	1,402,138	76,091	5,049,601
Outward...19,788	3,852,822	212,924	9,816	1,144,346	77,109	4,997,168	

#### 3.—VESSELS AND CREWS ENGAGED IN THE COASTING TRADE.\*

BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.			OTHER COASTING VESSELS.		
Vessels.	Tonnage.		Vessels.	Tonnage.	Total Tonnage.
Inward....	10,147	1,349,273	123,751	9,615,434	10,964,707
Outward ..	16,948	1,817,756	128,294	9,877,105	11,894,861

#### 4.—VESSELS EMPLOYED IN THE FISHERIES.

Northern, or Greenland.....	16 ships.....	800 men.
Spermaceti.....	68 ".....	2,176 "
Common oil.....	1 ".....	32 "
Total.....	85.....	3,008

There is one branch of the British mercantile navy which merits especial notice, namely, the Steam Marine. On the 18th January, 1812, Henry Bell's diminutive steam-boat, "the Comet," of 30 tons burden, and 3 horse-power, was launched in the Clyde; and little indeed could the most sanguine then have imagined, that in thirty years after the date of this humble commencement of European steam navigation, magnificent vessels of from 1,800 to 2,300 tons burden, propelled by engines of from 400 to 500 horse-power, would bring the shores of Great Britain into juxtaposition with those of America, Asia, and the furthestmost corners of the world. Between England and the United States there is only eight or ten days distance. The progress of the British steam navy has been rapid from its commencement, and in 1836, the date at which it entered as an element in commercial intercourse, it has surpassed every preconception. In 1814 there was only one vessel of this description in the kingdom; in 1820 there were 17 in England, 14 in Scotland, and 5 in Ireland; in 1825, in all 151; in 1830, 295; in 1835, 497; and in 1844, 904, and probably at the present time there are upwards of 1200.

\* Including repeated voyages of same vessels.

The foreign trade, and the amount of shipping and tonnage, and the relative importance of the several British and Irish ports, have now been sufficiently indicated. To define the extent of the trade of such of these ports, is not of easy accomplishment. London has for centuries been termed the "great emporium of nations," as its commerce has extended and still extends to every region of the globe. It is, however, particularly the chief depôt of British commerce with India and China. Liverpool and Bristol are the great depôts of the American and West India trade. Bristol, Hull, Newcastle, Whitehaven, Exeter, Yarmouth, Lynn, Stockton, Portsmouth, Southampton, &c., of the Baltic trade. Ipswich, Boston, Wisbeach, Yarmouth, Lynn and Pool, are among the principal ports engaged in the corn trade. Liverpool is largely engaged in the Irish trade, monopolising about one third, as well as about one sixteenth of the whole coasting trade. The great shipbuilding ports are London, Sunderland, Newcastle, Hull, Liverpool, Birkenhead, Yarmouth, &c.

The internal trade of the country, both Britain and Ireland, must be very great, but its amount cannot be even approximately ascertained. The banking or money trade is conducted by about 600 banks, national, joint-stock and private banks, each having branches in various parts of the country. The bank of England is the great fiscal agent of Britain. In no part of the world has the joint-stock system been followed out to such a prodigious extent as in England, except perhaps in the United States. These ramify into every department of business, and in the aggregate represent an enormous capital. Canals, docks, bridges and railways are all constructed by companies; and commerce, banking, insurance, &c., are all carried on, not by individuals as formerly, but under these institutions. In 1838, the whole capital invested in joint stock was only £167,000,000—the capital of railway companies alone is, at the present, time superior to this amount.

The items representing the condition of the Bank of England at several periods in 1848, are exhibited in the annexed form :

## BANK OF ENGLAND.

	1848.			
	March 18.	August 5.	August 26.	September 2.
Notes issued.....	£28,414,360	£20,690,315	£26,853,120	£26,883,505
Gold coin and bullion.....	12,889,560	11,670,223	12,077,973	12,177,567
Silver bullion.....	1,524,800	1,020,092	775,147	705,938
<i>Banking dep't.</i>				
Rest.....	3,991,550	3,559,152	3,556,686	3,826,382
Public deposits.....	6,957,392	2,888,368	4,868,374	5,021,591
Other do. ....	9,773,110	9,968,628	8,715,832	8,824,607
Seven day and other bills.....	869,742	1,109,914	1,052,576	1,016,921
Government securities.....	11,572,180	12,402,785	12,462,735	12,462,735
Other do. ....	12,806,573	10,951,788	10,899,000	11,368,814
Notes.....	10,967,270	7,998,200	8,734,240	8,784,795
Gold and silver coin.....	708,781	706,339	650,543	626,157

## CIRCULATION OF THE BANK OF ENGLAND.

	March 18.	August 5.	August 26.	September 2.
Notes issued.....	£28,414,380	£26,690,315	£26,853,120	£26,883,505
Notes on hand.....	10,967,270	7,998,200	8,734,240	8,784,795
Actual circulation.....	£17,447,090	£18,692,115	£18,118,880	£18,098,710

The returns of the circulation of all the banks, including the Irish and Scotch banks, at two periods in 1847 and 1848 comparatively, exhibit the following figures :

	—1847.— August 14.	—1848.— August 12.	Decrease.
Bank of England.....	£18,784,890.....	£18,710,728.....	£74,162
Private banks.....	4,258,380.....	3,530,990.....	737,390
Joint stock banks.....	2,091,351.....	2,479,951.....	511,400
Total in England.....	£26,034,621.....	£24,711,669.....	£1,322,952
Scotland.....	3,455,651.....	3,034,903.....	419,748
Ireland.....	5,097,215.....	4,313,304.....	783,911
Total of United Kingdom.....	£34,587,487	£32,060,876	£2,526,611

Thus showing a decrease of £1,322,952 in the circulation of notes in England, and a decrease of £2,526,611 in the circulation of the United Kingdom, when compared with the corresponding period last year.

The average stock of bullion held by the Bank of England in both departments, during the month ending the 12th of August, was £13,645,114, being an increase of £4,234,803 when compared with the same period last year.

The stock of specie held by the Scotch and Irish banks, during the month ending the 12th of August, was £2,573,054, being a decrease of £137,175 as compared with the corresponding period last year.

The above representations are given merely as an index of the general amount of banking operations in the United Kingdom, and as exhibitory of the fluctuations from time to time in their condition, which is governed by the state of trade and commerce in and out of the country. In England, indeed, the movements of the banks are the true pulses of commerce, and indicates rapidly and surely the prosperity or otherwise of that great department of national industry. It is probable that the years represented are not far from an average.

Connected intimately with the commerce and manufacturing industry of the country, is the immense facility of internal communication which the United Kingdom possesses, and which is so peculiarly a feature in British enterprise. Railroads, canals, and turnpike roads traverse in every direction the whole surface of the land. These works attest most obviously the activity, the power and resources of the nation. The length of turnpike roads is in Great Britain about 25,000 miles, and in Ireland 14,000 miles. These are supported by tolls, which a short time ago amounted to £1,200,000 a year. The total length of canals is nearly 3,000 miles, the income of which amounts to about £15,000,000 per annum, which sum, after deducting the expenses of repairs, &c., pay an interest on the investments of between 5 and 6 per cent.

The net of railways which now bands together the various parts of Great Britain and Ireland, extends to an enormous length. In 1845, there was open to traffic 2,118 miles, and in the same year 300 miles more were completed. In 1846 there were 593 miles, and in 1847, 839 miles opened, making an aggregate of 3,850 miles in the whole kingdom; the capital invested being £109,528,800. In 1847 the construction of 1,408 miles additional was authorized, and during the last four sessions of parliament an aggregate of 9,732 miles. At the commencement of 1848 there was a total length of 11,494 miles of road, including those completed and those in progress, which would be finished within the year.\*

The principal lines are—the Liverpool and Manchester railway, about thirty-two miles long, and uniting these populous towns; the London and Birmingham railway, about one hundred and twelve miles long, connecting

\* On 1st July, 1848, 4,357½ miles were completed.

the metropolis with the centre of England; the Grand Junction railway, continuing the London and Birmingham line to that of Liverpool and Manchester, and also to a railway proceeding northward to Lancaster and Carlisle, and thus forming a most important thoroughfare obliquely across the country; the Midland Counties, North Midland, and Great North of England railways, connecting the great seats of trade in Northumberland, Durham, Yorkshire, and Derbyshire, with the London and Birmingham line; the Newcastle and Carlisle railway, connecting these towns; the Great Western railway, about one hundred and seventeen miles long, connecting London with Bristol, and with smaller tributary lines opening up the west of England; the South-Western railway, about seventy-seven miles long, connecting London with Southampton; the Manchester and Leeds railway, connecting these populous towns. In Scotland, the Edinburgh and Glasgow Railway, and the Glasgow and Ayr Railway, are the principal lines. As yet few lines have been built in Ireland.

The bridges, aqueducts, and tunnels, which have been erected in connection with roads and canals, are more magnificent and numerous than those of any other country. To estimate their number would be difficult; but we may mention, that, in the metropolis, the Waterloo and London bridges alone cost very nearly two and a half millions sterling. The iron bridges which have been erected in different places are the admiration of all foreigners. Their arches are constructed of a number of strong ribs of metal, standing apart from each other like the joists of a house, and on these the floor or roadway is formed. Bridges of suspension are now also common, in which the roadway is suspended by iron bars, from strong chains which are fixed in the earth, and then hung over high pillars at each end of the bridge; by this means bridges can be constructed over deep and broad waters, where it would have been altogether impossible to stretch an arch of any other kind. On a well-frequented road, bridges costing £14,000 or £18,000 are often constructed merely to shorten the distance by a mile or two, or to avoid an inconvenient ascent in the old track. Were it possible to estimate the amount of capital laid out on this kind of improvement alone, it would be almost incredible.

The lighthouses of Britain are perhaps the most remarkable part of the nautical apparatus of the islands. The capital expended upon them has been large, and the skill with which some of them, such as the Bell-Rock and Eddystone lighthouses, are constructed for durability in the midst of a tempestuous sea, could only have been exhibited in a country where mechanical science existed in its highest perfection; and there is hardly a dangerous or doubtful point along the coast where the mariner is not guided by a light on some headland or rock. There is, however, much complaint concerning the dues levied from ships for lighthouse expenses; some of them are held as profitable tolls by private families, and in others the money levied is applied to purposes quite unconnected with lightning.

The population of the United Kingdom, as before observed, consists of various classes of persons, among whom, with respect to wealth, education, and general condition, even more than the usual differences are to be found. Notwithstanding great improvements in agriculture of late years, the country cannot produce wheat, oats, and other cereal grains, in sufficient abundance to meet the demands of a daily increasing and hard-laboring population, and what is deficient is excluded, except at high duties, which render the price of bread higher than it is elsewhere in Europe. Without entering minutely

into this great and much debated question, it may be mentioned as a general result, that the difficulty of purchasing food leads to a corresponding depression of circumstances in the humbler orders of the community, and either causes an extensive dependence on poor-rates for support, or produces debased and dangerous habits of living.

The present condition of society throughout the United Kingdom exhibits the spectacle of great and valuable efforts at improvement among the more enlightened classes. Within the last ten years, the utility of the press has been immensely increased, and works of instruction and entertainment have been circulated in departments of society where formerly nothing of the kind was heard of. The establishment of mechanics' institutions, lyceums, exhibitions of works of art, reading societies, and other means of intellectual improvement, forms another distinguished feature of modern society. At the same time great masses of the people, for lack of education, and from other unfortunate circumstances, are evidently gravitating into a lower condition. From these reasons, and others connected with the development of the manufacturing and commercial system, convictions for crime have been latterly increasing.

An account of the population of the empire has been taken at intervals of ten years from 1801. We have already exhibited the increase under the general census.

The increase of population has been greatest in the manufacturing districts, where, in some instances, it has been double of those which are merely agricultural. It has been ascertained, that there are, of the classes belonging to the aristocracy of Great Britain, from 3,000 to 4,000 families; of squires and gentlemen, who are land-proprietors, stockholders, money-lenders, &c., from 50,000 to 60,000 families; of learned professions—36,000 clergy of all denominations, about 30,000 lawyers, and 50,000 physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries—making 116,000 families, with half as many more dependents; of farming tenants, about 250,000 families, and of their laborers, 400,000 families; of merchants, shopkeepers, and general traders, 900,000 families; of artisans, 200,000 families; of manufacturers in all lines, 500,000 families; of laborers, porters, and servants, 600,000 families; and of destitute paupers, soldiers, &c., 800,000 families.

The statement of the aggregate population of the British islands, affords no idea of the force which is actually employed in agriculture and manufactures. The effective laborers (men) are estimated to amount to no more than 7,000,000, whereas, reckoning the powers exerted in productive industry by animals, mills, steam-engines, and mechanism of various kinds, the force is equal to the strength of more than *sixty millions* of working men.

An estimate was formed a few years ago of the total annual income of all classes of people in the United Kingdom, with the aggregate value of the articles of use and luxury which each produces, and from this we make the following extract:—

Value of agricultural and dairy produce.....	£236,600,000
“ Mines and minerals.....	21,400,000
“ Inland and foreign trade.....	57,773,059
“ Manufactures .....	148,050,000

Total of produce and property annually created in Great Britain..£503,823,059

An estimate was also formed of the value of the whole property, public and private, which has been created and accumulated by the people of this country, and which they now actually possess. This value, when the sum



is expressed by figures, is so immense, that it eludes the imagination to conceive it.

Value of productive private property.....	£2,995,000,000
“ unproductive, or dead stock.....	580,700,000
“ public property of all kinds.....	103,800,000
Total public and private property.....	£3,679,500,000

The wealth of the empire is distributed in the following proportions between the three countries :

	<i>Productive private property.</i>	<i>Unproductive private property.</i>	<i>Public property.</i>
England.....	£2,054,800,000.....	£374,200,000.....	£89,000,000
Scotland.....	318,100,000.....	91,100,000.....	3,000,000
Ireland.....	622,100,000.....	115,400,000.....	11,800,000

The proportion which these values bear to the population in each country is not suggested by the table ; but in England (taking productive and unproductive property together) the ratio is £152 to each person ; in Scotland, £140 ; and in Ireland, £90.

The colonies of Great Britain are described in other portions of this work. The importance of these to the mother country is immense, and as outlets for the manufactures of the United Kingdom, a great source of that wealth enjoyed by the British merchants and through them by the government itself. The following list is believed to contain the principal dependencies in every quarter of the world.

IN EUROPE.—Gibraltar, Malta, Gozo, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Santa Maura, Ithaca, Cerigo, Paxo, and Heligoland.

IN ASIA.—Bengal, Agra, Ultra-Gangetic Territory, Madras, Bombay, Ceylon, Penang, Wellesley, Malacca, and Singapore.

IN AUSTRALASIA.—New South Wales, Van Dieman's Land, Swan River, South Australia, and Norfolk Island.

IN AFRICA.—Cape of Good Hope, Mauritius, Seychelles, St. Helena, Ascension, Sierra Leone, Gambia, Cape Coast Castle, Accra, Dix Cove, Annamaboe, Fernando Po, and Aden.

IN NORTH AMERICA.—The United Canadas, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Prince Edward's Island, Newfoundland, the Hudson's Bay Territories, Honduras, and the Bermuda Isles.

IN SOUTH AMERICA.—Demerara, Essequibo, Berbice, and the Falkland Islands,—and

IN THE WEST INDIES.—Jamaica, Trinidad, Tobago, Grenada, St. Vincent's, Barbadoes, St. Lucia, Dominica, St. Kitt's, Montserrat, Antigua, Barbuda, Anguilla, Virgin Islands, the Bahamas, and a number of smaller islands.

## THE FRENCH REPUBLIC.

(FRANCE.)

THE French territory lies between  $42^{\circ} 40'$  and  $51^{\circ} 5'$  N. latitude, and between  $8^{\circ} 25'$  E., and  $4^{\circ} 43'$  W. longitude, and is in extreme length 665 miles, and in breadth 576, with a superficial area of 204,355 square miles, or 52,768,618 hectares. The country is bounded north by the English Channel and Straits of Dover; north-east by Belgium, Luxemburg, and the Rhenish provinces of Prussia; east by the Rhine, Switzerland, Savoy, and the Alps; south by the Mediterranean (in which is the dependent island of Corsica) and the Pyrennees: and west by the Bay of Biscay and the Atlantic ocean.

France exhibits an advantageous commixture of high and low lands. The greater part of it is composed of river basins, separated by mountains and hills, which expand into plains as they approach the coast. The most distinctly marked of these basins is that of the Rhone, in the south-east, which stretches through five degrees of latitude, from the sources of the Saone to the Gulf of Lyons, and is divided from the basins of the Po and the Var by the Maritime and High Alps, and from that of the Aar and Rhine by the ranges of the Jura and Vosges mountains. The western boundary of this extensive basin is formed by the Cevennes, a long range which starts off from the eastern Pyrennees, and after running parallel with the Mediterranean for 170 miles, divides into three branches. The most easterly branch continues its direction northward parallel to the course of the Rhone and Saone, and, after some interruptions, terminates in a hilly plain, (the plateau de Langres,) about 1,000 feet above the level of the sea. This plain is connected with the Vosges by a low chain of hills, called Monts Faucilles, which completes the circuit of the basin.

The other two branches of the Cevennes, known by the names of Forez, and the mountains of Auvergne, form, between them and the eastern branch, the vallies of the Allier and the Upper Loire, and are the eastern border of a high and hilly region, which decreases in elevation as it extends westward to the sources of the Charenton, from which point to the sea the country sinks into a low and level plain.

The other river basins are almost as distinctly marked as those of the Rhone, the Allier, and the Loire, with this difference only, that the watersheds which bound them are formed by ranges of hills of very moderate elevation, and in some places even scarcely rising into hills; but all connected more or less remotely with the great central and border mountains. The principal of these basins are those of the Loire and the Seine in the entire; those of the Somme, Scheldt, Meuse, Moselle, and Rhine, in the north; those of the Charenton, Dordogne, Garonne, Lot, Tarn, Adour, Aude, Herault, &c., in the south-west and south.

The scenery of France, devoid of all ornamental plantations, and the thickset hedges which are seen in England, is to an unusual degree tame and irksome, and the traveller in vain looks for the cheerful and varied aspect so characteristic of England. The fresh pastures and gentle eminences of Normandy are exceptions, and are truly beautiful. Picardy, Poitou, and Champagne consist of wide, uninteresting levels, while Auvergne, Upper Languedoc, and the vicinity of the Alps and the Pyrennees contain

bold but bleak scenery. The most picturesque views are found in Limousin, or on the borders of the great rivers. The banks of the Loire, from Orleans westward, are proverbially beautiful. The Rhone, which is bordered by mountains, presents generally a bold aspect, varied occasionally with gloomy wildness. The Seine flows through verdant but less striking scenery.

The area of France is approximately distinguished into the following characters in relation to its soils :

Mountain country.....	8	Soil of sandy .....	10
Landes.....	10½	“ clay.....	5
Soil of rich mould .....	14	“ marsh and swamp.....	0½
“ chalk .....	18	Various soils.....	14
“ gravel.....	7		
“ stoney.....	13	Total.....	100

and of this one-half is cultivable; 9 parts meadow; 4½ vineyards; 15 woods and forests; 15 downs, pastures, and heaths, &c.; the remainder being occupied in a variety of ways, or consisting of cities, roads, canals, &c.

The coast of France along the English Channel is generally irregular in its outline, and forms two great bays, which are separated by the peninsula of Cotentin or La Manche. The north-eastern part of the coast is low and shelving, and lined in many places with sand hills. About Cape Gris-nez there are cliffs, and to the westward of the mouth of the Seine the coast is skirted with rocks. The coast of the western bay is rocky, broken by numerous inlets, and lined with many rocky islands. The western coast of Finisterre or Bretagne is lofty or precipitous, from which it becomes gradually lower, until at L'Orient, and further to the south-east, it terminates in low, clayey and muddy flats, in which the sea forms various inlets, chiefly at the mouths of the rivers. The headlands, however, and the numerous islands off the shore, are still of the same hard rock, but slightly covered with soil, and in some parts rising into rugged precipices. To the south of the Loire the coast is less broken, and to the Gironde low, and lined with salt marshes. Hence to the Pyrennees is one straight line of coast bordered by extensive landes, and only at distant intervals with meadows and cultivated fields. The soil, however, is not wholly unproductive, and numbers of sheep find pasture in its heathy covering. The soil also abounds with iron ore, which is smelted with the charcoal made from the pine forests, which are extensive in these regions. The coast on the Gulf of Lyons is characterised by a number of lagoons, separated from the sea by narrow strips of land. Near Toulon the coast assumes a bolder character, and along the Gulf of Genoa becomes high and broken.

In a geological point of view, France is one of the most interesting countries in the world. It contains formations of every description, from the non-fossiliferous strata to those of tertiary and alluvial, and likewise igneous rocks, from the older granite and trap to the comparatively more recent extinct volcanic. The Alps and Pyrennees abound in mica-slate and gneiss. In Bretagne is exhibited the older grauwacke-slate, including large crystals of curious mineral chialtolite. From the centre to the south of France, and in the north-east, the Silurian system is developed, containing impressions of that strange animal—the trilobite. In the north-east it underlies the coal formation, and in the Vosges it is metaliferous. The coal formation in France, as in Britain, is generally unaccompanied with iron-stone, a circumstance which greatly affects the manufacturing

interests of the country, for although iron-stone is found, it is at a distance from the fuel necessary for smelting it. In Normandy there is a small coal field, but the most abundant deposits occur in the central parts and in the south-east. The coal fields east of Boulogne extend eastward into Belgium, and are very extensive. Although considerable coal is wrought, still the quantity is not equal to the consumption, nor is the quality so good as either the English or Scotch. Red sand-stone is found in many parts, and variegated sand-stone, marl, gypsum, lime-stone, and rock-salt, are found from the Ardennes to the Vosges.

The geology of France, however, has been brought most prominently into notice by the contents of its tertiary basin. The strata of which that is composed, consist of four principal masses. The first or lowest is a marine deposit; the second is fresh water; third marine again, and the fourth or upper, fresh water, evincing as many changes in the relative level of the sea and land. The lowest fresh water contains much gypsum or sulphate of lime, from which the plaster of Paris is made. From this mass of the group have been disinterred numerous organic remains of extinct animals. Cuvier classified these according to their anatomical structure, from which he deduced the habits of the animal, and thus exposed to the world a creation not previously known to have existed. Mammalia belonging to the following orders have been found, viz., carnivora, rodentia, pachydermata, ruminantia and cetacea. Many of the animals included in these orders had some resemblance to the elephant, hippopotamus, rhinoceros, tapir, hog, horse, deer, hare, &c., yet all are specifically different, though at the same time they evince an approach in the animal creation to the existing races. On the same ground, the fishes, conchifera, &c., of the tertiary era, become exceedingly interesting. Vast numbers of fossil shells, in very perfect shape, have been extracted from the Paris Basin, in which, as we approach from the older to the newer, the shells become more like to the recent species, and are found in greater numbers. The remains of birds and insects have also been discovered. Involved among the volcanic products of Auvergne, and in some other places, similar remains have been discovered in the tertiary strata.

Of the 86 departments of France, 85 contribute somewhat to the mineral wealth of the Republic; that of Gers is the only exception. There are thirty-six coal-fields in thirty departments. The most important are those of the Loire, which extend over an area of 42,000 acres, between the Loire and the Rhone, by which their products are conveyed to Marseilles, Paris, &c. The next in importance are those of Nord, Saone, and Loire; Avignon, Garde, and Calvados; the produce raised in the remaining departments is very small. Of late years the productiveness of the mines has greatly increased, but is yet very far from having reached its limit. In 1814, the annual quantity raised was less than 700,000 tons; now it amounts to nearly 3,000,000 tons. In the production of iron, France ranks next to England. There are twelve distinct localities, or districts, in which the making of iron is prosecuted. The production of other metals is of little or no commercial importance. The whole value of lead, silver, antimony, copper, and magnesia, is insignificant. There are eleven or twelve lead mines, and five mines from which copper is abstracted. Salt is made in various parts of the republic; but the principal place of production is the Salines de l'Est, near the small town of Salines, in the department of Jura. Bay salt is evaporated on the southern coast. France contains 243 mineral springs, many of which are collected in baths, for the accommodation of invalids. Mount Jura supplies asphaltum. The neigh-

borhood of Paris abounds with quarries of freestone, and the houses of that city are chiefly constructed of this material. There are marble quarries in several of the mountain districts, but not in situations to admit of exportation. The number of persons depending on mining operations is about 300,000, and the annual value created by their labor may be estimated at \$80,000,000.

The climate of France, though varying much in different localities, is in general genial, and well-adapted to extensive and profitable agriculture. In the north-west it assimilates in some degree to that of England, and rain is frequent. Here the country is well-adapted to pasturage; and, as in England, the principal objects of culture are wheat, barley, oats, rye, and such fruit as apples, pears, and cherries; also hemp, flax, and rape-seed. It is in this division of France alone that the natural pastures are rich and extensive. Here also the oak, ash and elm, bear a close resemblance to the same species in England. In the central regions, with the exception of the mountain districts, the winters are short and mild; and, along with the more hardy grains, maize is cultivated, and the vine flourishes. The weather here is also more steady than in the north. In summer there is little rain, and storms, when they occur, are frequently accompanied with hail; but on the whole, the temperature is, perhaps, the most pleasant in France, being exempt from all extremes. The climate of the southern districts approaches that of Italy and Spain. The heat of the summer mid-day is oppressive, and irrigation is necessary for the purposes of agriculture. The crops of grain, at elevations adapted to each, are exuberant, and the whole country is thickly-planted with the vine, which here finds its natural climate and soil. The common fruits are the olive and the mulberry; and in a few of the warmer situations, the orange and lemon. Good pasture is found only on the hills or in the well-irrigated plains. To pulmonary invalids the climate of this region is genial and advantageous, but in this respect, also, very much depends on locality; the winter in the south-east being at intervals rendered very cold by the *vent de bise*, a piercing wind, which blows from the Alps and the mountains of Auvergne. In the north the most frequent wind is the south-west, which also prevails in the central parts, though in a less degree. In Southern France the more common winds are from the north.

In France there are few artificial or ornamental plantations, but about one-eighth part of the republic is covered with natural forests. These are found in almost every department. Normandy has several of considerable extent. There is a large forest at Fontainebleau, and one still larger to the north of the Loire, in the vicinity of Orleans. The forests near the coasts and along the great rivers, especially if near large manufacturing districts, have been considerably diminished in extent, and in other parts the wants of the people for fuel have largely encroached upon the once extensive woodlands. The forests of France indeed are fast disappearing. During the first revolution vast tracts were disposed of with little economy, and at the present time, they form an item in the resources of the revolutionary government; and the satisfactory regulations that had been adopted in reference to cutting during the monarchy have been abolished.

The only useful plants really indigenous to France are the fig, the apple, the pear, the plum, and, perhaps, we may add the truffles of Angouleme and Perigord. Many useful plants have been naturalized by culture. The cherry and the vine were first planted by the Romans; the Greeks on the Mediterranean coast introduced the olive and the raspberry, and

since the discovery of the New World France has acclimatized the maize, and numerous other plants, both of North and South America. Asia and Africa have also contributed to its stock. The first gave her the mulberry, the apricot and peach, with the almond, walnut, and the finest kinds of melons; and the latter the pomegranate, which grows finely in the southern parts. The orange, lemon, and a variety of fruit grow wild in the fields. The kidney-bean, white endive, and the lettuce, have passed from India to Western Europe; and the weeping-willow, now common on the banks of the French rivers, was obtained from the neighborhood of Babylon.

Turtles are taken on the Atlantic and Mediterranean coasts, and the various European reptiles and crustacea are found inhabiting the several departments. Along the north coast cod, mackerel, herring, pilchards, turbot, ray, soles, salmon, whittings, and mullet abound. On the Atlantic and Mediterranean great quantities of sardils or sardines are caught, which appear periodically as herring, and, in the Mediterranean, tunny is taken in the early part of the summer. Cetaceous animals frequently find their way to the coast, and in the seas of Gascony and Lyons the whale has been observed since the days of Pliny and Strabo. Fishery of the molusca forms an important branch of industry, and on some parts of the coast the inhabitants derive their chief sustenance from oysters and muscles. Lobsters are also abundant, and of large size, furnishing to the wealthy a much relished luxury.

France is a country peculiarly adapted to the propagation of insect life, and all the beauty of insect creations, as well as the torments accompanying a prolific climate, are no strangers to the French. Several, of very noxious habits, both of native and foreign origin, are found in the country, particularly the weevil, scorpion, the aphis, tarantula, &c. The bee, in the south, produces a great quantity of honey and wax, and the silk-worm, habituated to the climate since the time of Louis XI., forms a great part of the wealth of Dauphiny. The cantharis or blistering-fly, is likewise a denizen of the southern departments.

The French are of very mixed origin. Few only of the original type remain. The Græco-Latin race, comprehending the French who inhabit the north of the Loire, and the country immediately south of that river; the Romans, who occupy south of the French, and the Italians, who occupy Corsica, include more than nine-tenths of the whole population. The first two races speak different languages, both nearly allied to the ancient Latin, but containing also words and idioms of Gothic origin. The Germanic race inhabit Alsace, part of Lorraine, and the Flemings are found in the northern departments. The Bretons in Brittany belong to the Celtic race, and speak a cognate dialect of the Welch. The Basques, in the Low Pyrennees, belong to the Basque race, and there are a great number of Jews in all the large cities. These several races are as various in character as in origin and language, and to the present day, in a great measure preserve the national peculiarities of their several ancestors.

At the end of the seventeenth century the population of France was stated at nearly 20,000,000. In 1791, a census exhibited it at 26,363,600. The progress of population has been as exhibited in the following table:

<i>Years.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Increase.</i>
1700.....	19,669,320.....	
1762.....	21,769,163.....	2,099,843
1784.....	24,800,000.....	3,030,837
1791.....	26,363,600.....	1,563,600
1801.....	27,349,003.....	975,403
1806.....	29,080,150.....	1,731,147
1811.....	29,092,734.....	11,584
1821.....	30,461,875.....	1,369,141
1826.....	31,358,937.....	1,396,062
1831.....	32,569,223.....	710,286
1836.....	33,540,908.....	971,685
1841.....	34,400,000.....	859,092
1846.....	35,030,000.....	600,000

Of the population of 1841 as shown in the annexed view :

The number of females was.....	17,232,000
Under 21 years of age .....	8,276,000
Of, and above 21 years of age.....	8,956,000
The number males was.....	17,168,000
Under 21 years of age.....	8,252,000
Of, and above 21 years of age.....	8,916,000

The employment of the males, who are eligible as voters at elections under the new constitution, is distributed as annexed :

1st. Working Class or Paupers.....	6,585,000
2d. Manufacturing, Trading, and Agricultural Capitalists....	927,000
3d. Learned Professions and independent Incomes.....	425,000
4th. Paid Officials, Army, Navy, and Pensions.....	379,000

Of these, belonging to the first class, 5,591,000 are in a state of ignorance, most of them unable to read and write, and in the fourth class there is also a sad deficiency of knowledge, as out of 1000 recruits, 500 do not know their alphabet. The mean duration of life is 32-6 years; before the first revolution it was stated by Duvillard at 28 $\frac{3}{4}$  years, proving that a favorable change has taken place in the law of mortality, and that a greater degree of comfort has been enjoyed by the people since that period.

Three-fourths of the French profess the Roman Catholic religion; all religions, however, are protected. The remaining fraction consists of various sects. About 1,000,000 belong to the Reformed Church, the majority of whom are in the southern departments. The Jews are met with in the large cities. In Doubs and Vosges there are a few Anabaptists, and a new sect calling themselves the French Church has lately appeared: they do not acknowledge the authority of the Pope, and have their liturgy in French. The Protestants who adhere to the Confession of Augsburg, or the Lutherans, have a general consistory, the seat of which is Strasbourg, and six inspections. The Reformed Protestants or Calvinists have consistories, of which five form a synod, and oratorial churches in fifty-five departments. They have a faculty of theology at Montaubon. The Jews have a central consistory at Paris, and consistorial synagogues at Strasbourg, Colmar, Metz, Nancy, Bourdeaux, and Marseilles. Salaries are paid out of the public treasury, and amount to between 3,500,000 to 4,000,000 francs a year. Cardinals have about \$6,600, archbishops \$4,000, and bishops \$3,000 annual salaries. The Catholic clergy number about 38,000; Lutheran about 400; Calvinist about 350, and Jewish about 100.

The republic is divided into 14 Roman Catholic archiepiscopal provinces, and 66 bishoprics, altogether 80 dioceses. The dioceses are gene-

rally co-terminate with the departments, but in several cases a diocese includes two or more of the civil divisions.

Education in France, though supported by the government, is not general, but is open to all. The University of France embraces the whole system of national education, and includes all the educational institutions of the country, from the lowest schools up to the greatest colleges. The supervision is entrusted to a council, and a corps of inspectors, and each commune is obliged by law to support schools for elementary instruction. The number of institutions belonging to the university, was lately as follows: 41 national colleges, with 626 professors, 5,779 internal, and 8,870 external students; 318 communal colleges; 146 institutions; 1,114 boarding-schools; 54 normal schools; and 42,318 primary schools.

The highest rank is that of the "Facultes." There are six "Facultes" of Roman Catholic Theology, and two of Protestant Theology, one Lutheran, and one Calvinistic. There are nine Facultes of law; three of medicine, with 17 secondary schools; eight of science, and six of literature. The facultes of Paris are highly-distinguished, and are attended by a large body of students. No student is eligible to the facultes of law, physic or divinity, until he has received diplomas in science and literature. The classes have thus been enumerated by M. Benoiston de Chateauneuf.:

Students in Law.....	4,640..	of whom 2,800 at Paris.
"    Theology.....	500	"    140 Protestants.
"    Medicine.....	1,950	"    1,100 at Paris.
"    Science.....	2,135	"    1,200
"    Letters.....	1,900	"    1,500
<hr/>		
Total annual average.....	11,109	
Primary Schools:—		
for Boys.....	31,420	
for Girls.....	10,672	with an aggregate of
Scholars.....		1,907,000
Institutions and Boarding-Schools.....		20,500
Communal Colleges.....		29,700
National Colleges or High Schools.....		11,000
<hr/>		
Total, receiving Education.....		1,968,200
Students of Theology in the Seminaries.....		13,000
<hr/>		
1,981,200		

From this it appears that only about one-sixteenth of all the children receive any education; and alas! to such are now entrusted the destinies of France. These, however, comprise only one portion of the schools—there are a large number of others, but chiefly devoted to one single branch of knowledge: as the school of charts; the school of roads and bridges; of geographers; engineers; miners; singing and declamation; fine arts; mathematics, drawing, commerce, and industry; the forest school; agricultural schools; school of arts and trades; school of the army staff; military schools; and a variety of others, all intended to prepare youth for a chosen profession. The Ecole Polytechnique of Paris, above all, is of more extended value, and in its studies embraces, as its name implies, the pursuit of universal knowledge. The object of this institution is national, and intended to supply men capable of undertaking any department of national inquiry. The students are uniformed, and are kept under military discipline. Selected from the ablest youths of France, listening to the



ablest lecturers, aided by the best books, and having their attention seldom distracted from their studies, the élèves of the Polytechnique are highly distinguished for their proficiency, which is the result of their studious retirement.

France has constituted herself a Republic, and, according to the constitution voted by the National Assembly, 4th November, 1848, democratic, one and indivisible. Its principles are liberty, equality, fraternity, and its basis family, labor, property, and public order. The first article of the constitution recognises that "the sovereignty resides in the totality of the French people." By the 2d, the rights of the citizen are guaranteed: no one can be arrested except in accordance with the laws—a man's house is inviolable—no one can be removed from his natural judges—the death penalty for political offences is abolished—slavery cannot exist on French territory—all religions are exercised, and the ministers of all supported by the state—the right of assembling and petitioning is secured—the press is free and subject to no censorship—teaching is free, but under the supervision of the state—public employment is open to all—all titles of nobility, class, or caste, are abolished forever—the public debt is guaranteed—every one is to be taxed, but no tax can be levied except according to the laws, and direct taxes can only be accorded for one year. Such are the chief provisions for the citizens.

The legislative power is vested in a single assembly, to consist of 700 members, including those from Algeria and the colonies, which now constitute an integral part of the Republic, but when it is necessary to revise the constitution, it is to be raised to 900 members. Population is the basis for election, suffrage is direct and universal, and votes are taken by ballot. All Frenchmen, 21 years of age, and not disqualified by law, may vote, and all electors, 25 years of age, are eligible for election to public offices. Property neither qualifies nor disqualifies. No member of the Assembly is eligible for any remunerating public office during the continuance of the Legislature. The Representatives are elected by Departments, and the duration of an Assembly is limited to three years, when it is renewed in its entirety. The Assembly is declared permanent, and during any prorogation, a commission composed of members of committees, and twenty-five representatives, named by the Assembly by ballot, will have the right to call together the Assembly in case of emergency. The President of the Republic has the same right. Members are declared to be not representatives of the department in which they are elected, but of all France. They cannot receive instructions—their persons are inviolable, nor can a representative be arrested for crime except by permission of the Assembly. Members *must* receive pay. The sittings of the Assembly are public, but the Assembly may form itself into a secret committee. The presence of half the members and one over is necessary to form a quorum. No bills, except in an emergency, can be passed, unless read thrice, at intervals of five whole days—the emergency to be decided upon by the Assembly.

The Executive is delegated to a citizen who receives the title of President of the Republic. He must be a native Frenchman, 35 years of age at least, and must never have lost the quality of Frenchman. The President is elected for four years, and is ineligible for the four succeeding years. The Vice-President, and his relations to the sixth degree, are excluded for a like term. The President is elected by ballot, by an absolute majority of votes, and by direct suffrage. The Vice-President is appointed by the Assembly, out of a list of three candidates presented by the President. The

National assembly is judge of elections. The powers and duty of the President are as follow: he may, through his ministers, bring in bills before the Assembly—he shall watch over and secure the execution of the laws—dispose of the armed force, but not take immediate command—every year he must lay before the Assembly a full statement of the condition of the country, &c.—he shall negotiate and ratify treaties, but no treaty is conclusive without the assent of the Assembly—he cannot enter upon a war without consent—he has the pardoning power—he is lodged at the public expense, and receives a salary of six hundred thousand francs a year—he is the general appointing power—he and his ministers are responsible.

Intermediary between the President and Assembly there is a council of state, of which the Vice-President is President. This council has advisory and controlling powers over the administration, acting somewhat after the manner of the British Privy Council. The members are appointed each for six months, by the Assembly, and half renewed in the two first months of each new legislature by secret ballot and by an absolute majority. They are indefinitely re-eligible, and are not liable to be dismissed except by the assembly, at the suggestion of the President.

The several departments, arrondissements, districts, and communes, are to be maintained as pre-existing. In each department there is a prefect, general council, and council of prefecture; in each arrondissement a sub-prefect; in each district, a district council; nevertheless, only a single council is established in a city which is divided into several districts; and in each commune an administration, composed of a mayor, his assistants, and a municipal council. A special law fixes the composition and duties of these functionaries. The general and municipal councils are elected by the citizens living in the department or district, one member being elected from each district to the general council. The president, with the advice of the council of state, may dissolve these, and order new elections.

Justice is awarded gratis, in the name of the French people. All proceedings in the courts are public; but in cases where publication may be detrimental to the state, or to morals, the proceedings may be close, and a formal judgment alone be publicly given. Trial by jury is maintained. The judges and magistrates are generally appointed by the President: the judges for life. The powers of the courts, &c., are specified in the constitution, and in special laws.

The public force is composed of the National Guards, and of the army by sea and by land. Every Frenchman is bound to be a soldier. The Constitution declares that "the public force is essentially obedient. No armed force can constitute a deliberative assembly." Such is a brief outline of the new constitution—it may be altered. It is confided to the keeping and to the patriotism of every Frenchman.

The election for first president of the republic took place on the 10th and 11th of December, 1848, and resulted in the election of Prince Napoleon Louis Bonaparte, by a very large majority. His greatest competitor for the dignity was Gen. Cavaignac, who had for some time previously exercised the office of President of the National Assembly. This issue was received without a murmur, and the people generally have accepted the Prince in good faith as President, and not, as some will have it, as heir to the empire. Be this as it may, it is certain that the name rather than the man was in this instance made president, and such a result seems to point to the resuscitation of the imperial dignity in the line of Napoleon.

The public revenues of the Republic are derived from a number

of taxes on lands, houses, and other property; personal contributions; licenses on trades and professions, &c., which constitute the direct taxes. The indirect taxes are from excise duties on articles of consumption, stamp duties, lottery and gaming-house licenses, &c. Considerable revenue is also derived from the monopoly of tobacco and gunpowder—from the post-office, and from the octroi, or custom-duties on articles entering large towns, one-tenth of which is paid into the public treasury, and the remainder is used by the local authorities. The external customs form an important branch of the national income. The average annual revenue from all sources, during the monarchy, was about 1,000,000,000 francs, or \$180,000,000. In some years the expenditures have exceeded this amount one-third; and since the downfall of Louis Philippe the expense of organizing the government, and otherwise providing for the wants of the people, it has increased it far beyond all precedent. The national debt of France is about \$1,350,000,000, and the interest about \$75,000,000. The system of collecting and managing the revenue is simple and precise. On the proposal of the Minister of Finance the Assembly annually votes the amount of imposts, and divides them among the 86 departments, according to their extent, industry, population, and supposed ability, the amount of the direct contribution. The prefect, with the advice of the departmental council divides among the arrondissements the sum total with which the department is charged. The sub-prefect, assisted by the council of the arrondissement, subdivides the allotment among the cantons and communes, and finally, the maires, with the municipal councils, and “commissaires repartiteurs,” assign to each individual the portion he is to pay. As the indirect contributions are levied upon articles of consumption, the amount payable by the citizens cannot be fixed, as it, of course, depends on the wealth and wants of each. The collection of these is entrusted to several administrations, entirely independent of each other, but all responsible to the minister of finance. These are the administration of Direct Contributions; of Indirect Contributions, of the Enregistrement and Domaines; of the Postes; of the Customs, and of the Forests. Besides these special administrations, there are some other receipts of small amount; but all the public revenues, however collected, come at last into the hands of the agents of the treasury, called particular receivers and general receivers, who, in turn, hand them over to the payers, another class of treasury agents, specially charged with paying the expenses of the government. On the order of the Minister funds are transmitted to Paris, or other parts, according to the necessities of the public service. A receiver-general is stationed in each department, and in each sub-prefecture there is a particular receiver.

The operations of all these boards are superintended by special inspectors, whose duties extend to the examination of the accounts even of the smallest localities. And at last, when the Minister of Finance has verified the accounts to the *Cour des Comptes*, the seat of which is in Paris, and which has been instituted for the purpose of finally examining the accounts of the receipts and expenditures, and of balancing and settling all intromissions connected with the revenue.

There are some fruits for which France is famous. A particular kind of cherry (*cerassus sylvestris*) which abounds in the Vosges, yields a *kirchenwasser* (cherry brandy) not inferior to any that can be had in the Black forest of Swabia. The fruit of the plum trees forms a considerable branch of trade in the departments of Var, Lot and Garonne, Indre and Loire. The finest fruits of the country round Paris are the chasselas or raisins of Fontainebleau, the peach of Montreuil, and the cherry of Montmorency.

Different vegetables have acquired, on certain soils, a superior quality; as the kidney bean in the neighborhood of Soissons, the carrot of Amiens, and the artichokes of Laon.

Next to wheat, the most important of all the vegetable productions of France is the vine, the cultivation of which extends, more or less generally, over the half of the Republic, beginning as far north as Champagne, and spreading over the country to the south and the west. The cultivation, however, is limited north of 45°. From the great variety of the soil and climate, French wines differ greatly in quality and flavor, and it is only in the extreme south that the best are procured. Since the commencement of the present century the demand for this article has greatly increased, and as a consequence, its production has been stimulated to an extraordinary extent. It is computed that 5,000,000 acres are now planted with vines, and that the annual value of wines and spirits produced varies little from \$130,000,000 annually, of which only an eighteenth part is exported. The best brandy is distilled in the vicinity of Garonne.

Among the other more important articles of culture are—madder, saffron, and hops. The cultivation of tobacco is restricted by law to certain districts. In the following table a recapitulation of the computed annual values of the principal products is exhibited.

Wine .....	\$130,000,000	Wood for fuel and timber.....	\$23,000,000
Hemp.....	6,000,000	Olive oil, rape seed, &c.....	12,500,000
Raw Silk.....	3,000,000	Tobacco.....	1,500,000
Flax.....	4,000,000	Chesnuts .....	1,500,000
Madder.....	1,000,000		
		Total.....	\$187,500,000

And the quantities and values of cereal products appear in the annexed :

Wheat,	bushel.....	150,000,000.....	\$180,000,000
Rye and Mixed Corn,	" .....	85,000,000.....	70,000,000
Buckwheat,	" .....	26,000,000.....	13,000,000
Barley,	" .....	38,000,000.....	30,000,000
Peas and Beans,	" .....	3,970,000.....	7,500,000
Potatoes,	" .....	56,000,000.....	11,500,000
Oats,	" .....	90,000,000.....	54,000,000
Maize or Indian Corn,	" .....	12,000,000.....	9,000,000
		Total.....	\$375,000,000

Wild animals are not so numerous in France as in Germany, because neither the forests nor the mountains are spread over so great an extent of country. The black and brown bear inhabit the Pyrennees; the lynx is found in the High Alps; and the chamois and wild goat are still seen in the southern and eastern districts. Squirrels are abundant in the forests. The yellow martin is found in some of the departments, and the marmot in the mountain regions. The ermine and hamster inhabit the Vosges and Alsace. The smaller quadrupeds are everywhere. The water-rat and other frequent the marshes, and the badger digs its burrow in the remote woods. And in many of the provinces the pole-cat, the fox and the weazle still prey upon the poultry yards. In all the large forests the wolf finds a refuge, and by frequent descents on the pastures prove destructive to the sheep. When these, however, become very troublesome, a general hunt is got up, and the neighborhoods thinned of these offensive animals.

The sheep is reared throughout France, but as a wool-bearing animal it has not improved much by the attention of man. The merino was introduced

in 1787, and has since been distributed to the shepherds. Where this has been done the fleece has doubled in weight, and the value of wool at the present time is about \$18,000,000 annually. Still, in the less improved parts of the country, very little attention is paid to the breeding of sheep or to the improvement of the staple.

The total number of beeves in France is stated at about 12,000,000. They are of 14 or 15 different species, and in the central and southern departments are much used for agricultural draught. The cattle are not so fine conditioned as those of England, nor is there much judgment shown in pasturing them. Comparatively little butter is made in the south, its place being supplied by olive oil, but in the north it is generally used. Cheese is comparatively scarce. Neither is the horse, either in numbers, size or beauty, equal to those of England. They are remarkably strong; of the whole number more than one half belong to the northern provinces. The ass is a degenerate animal in comparison with its congener of Spain. Hogs, of which there are three species, are very plentiful, and fatten well. In some departments poultry is not the least valuable stock. The fowls of Caux form a distinct variety. The ash-colored goose attains a great size in Languedoc and other places, and the manner of feeding the goose and duck renders their livers excessively large, and gives them a delicacy much prized by the gourmand. The geese around Strasbourg and the ducks of Toulouse are thus tortured to gratify the tastes of the Parisians. Of wild birds all the common species of Europe are plentiful; besides which, flamingoes from Africa, the witwall and the midwall of Candia, and other foreign birds, frequent the southern coast. Among the singing birds are the gold-finch, the linnet, and the bull-finch. In the central parts the red partridge is not rare, but in the southern the grey is more common. Wood-cocks and snipes are abundant in Picardy and Auvergne. The coasts of the channel are frequented by the plover, the widgeon, the sea lark, and the wild duck, of which a great many are sent to Paris.

For military purposes France is divided into twenty-one provinces, styled military divisions. The chiefs of these are lieutenant-generals, who have under them as many field-m Marshals as there are departments in their respective divisions, and under the command of these officers are placed the troops in each department. The administration devolves on a Corps d'Intendance, and in the capital of each division there is an Intendant, and a sub-intendant in each sub-division.

The maritime regions are divided into five arrondissements, which are again sub-divided into quartiers. A maritime prefect, who takes charge of the ports, is stationed in each arrondissement, and supervises the whole coast defence of his district. The forts and naval stations are highly distinguished for their efficiency, and some of the strong-holds are reckoned among the most secure in Europe. The fortifications of Paris and Lyons are instances of such. The whole number of fortified places is 131; of which, 21 are of the first class, 48 of the second, and 52 of the third. The chief naval stations and dock-yards are those of Brest, Toulon, Rochefort, Cherbourg, and L'Orient. Corvettes are also built at Bayonne, Nantes, and St. Servan.

The French have always been fond of military glory, and have invariably placed the most unhesitating confidence in their prowess in war. With them war is a passion. Most splendid success has, indeed, in numerous instances, crowned their efforts, and yet no nation has ever experienced greater reverses or more signal defeats.

It would be difficult to ascertain the present constitution and force of the

French army. Previous to the revolution of 1848, it was organized on the following basis:

I. Infantry.	Infantry of the Line:	75 regiments,	} each of 3 battalions, of 7 companies.
	Light Infantry,	25 do.	
	Foot Chasseurs:	10 battalions,	} each of 8 companies.
	Zuaves, (in Algeria:)	1 regiment, forming 3 battalions of 9 companies.	
	African Light Infantry:	3 battalions,	} each of 10 companies.
	Discipline Legion:	12 companies,	
II. Cavalry.	Foreign Legion:	1 company,	} forming 2 regiments of 3 battalions.
	Carabiniers:	2 regiments,	
	Cuirassiers:	10 do.	} Amounting together to 54 regiments, of 5 squadrons each.
	Dragoons:	12 do.	
	Lancers:	8 do.	
	Chasseurs:	13 do.	
	Huzzars:	9 do.	
	African Chasseurs:	4 do.	
III. Artillery.			} of six squadrons each.
	Artillery	10 do.	
	Artillery:	4 do.	} of 15 batteries each, (3 horse, and 12 foot.)
	Pontooners:	1 do.	
	Workmen:	12 do.	} (2 horse, and 12 foot.)
	Armourers:	1 do.	
IV. Engineers:	Artillery train:	6 squadrons of 8 companies each.	
V. Gendarmerie.			
	Gendarmerie:	25 legions in France, and 1 in Algeria.	
	Voltigeurs:	1 battalion of 4 companies, in Candia.	
	Municipal Guards:	1 legion,	} in Paris.
VI. Veterans.	Firemen:	1 battalion, of 5 companies,	
	Non-Commissioned Officers:	8 companies,	
	Fusileers:	10 do.	
	Horsemen:	4 do.	
	Cannoneers:	12 do.	
VII. Ordnance:	Engineers:	1 do.	
	Gendarmerie:	2 do.	

VII. Ordnance:—1 battalion of workmen, of 10 companies, and a depot; 7 squadrons of military baggage train, and 4 companies of workmen, thereto attached.

The gradations of military rank are—sub-lieutenant, lieutenant, captain, chef d'escadron, colonel, marechal de camp, lieutenant-general, and marshal of France. Promotion cannot be purchased as in England, and not often obtained by special order:—more than half the promotions take place by seniority. The number of marshals of France, the highest officers in the army, is fixed at eight in time of peace, and may be increased to twelve in time of war. The army in its entirety amounts in general to between 300,000 and 500,000 men; but in time of war every Frenchman is liable to conscription—"every Frenchman is a soldier."

The French have of late years been making great efforts to become a naval power, and not content with the laurels they have won on land, have sought vent for their ambition on the ocean. They have never, however, rendered themselves formidable on this, to them a new element. The battle of Trafalgar, and the minor conflicts of the last war, almost annihilated the naval force of the French. Since the peace, however, extraordinary efforts to build up a navy have been evinced. As early as 1631, France had 60,000 seamen, and in 1791 she had 100,000, commanding 82 ships of the

line and 73 frigates. There were in commission 1st January, 1840, —ships of the line 13, from 80 to 120 guns; frigates 13; corvettes 19; brigs 33; gun-brigs 9; schooners, cutters, advice-boats, transports, &c. 578; and steam-vessels 25. The naval force was fixed in 1837 at 46 ships of the line, 50 frigates, 40 steamers, and 190 smaller vessels; but only one-half the ships and frigates were to be launched, and the other half to be kept on the stocks in various stages of completion, but this has been somewhat altered since. The annexed table will exhibit the number and capacity of each class of vessels in 1845, which comprises the latest returns on this head:

	IN COMMISSION.		BUILDING.		IN ORDINARY.		TOTAL. Vessels.
	Number.	Guns.	Number.	Guns.	Number.	Guns.	
Ships of the Line.....	17	1,598	25	2,442	4	340	46
Frigates.....	23	1,184	16	810	6	310	45
Corvettes.....	17	444	3	90	6	124	26
Brigs.....	34	464	2	40	21	270	57
Schooners, Cutters, &c....	37	122	2	12	8	20	47
Transports, &c.....	33	132	10	40	14	56	59
Steam Frigates.....	5	78	2	12	—	—	7
Steam Corvettes.....	3	62	9	54	—	—	17
Steam vessels of small size.	41	209	3	15	—	—	44
Total.....	215	4,293	72	3,515	59	1,120	346

Total guns, when all armed, 8,928; men and boys in service in 1845, 27,554. The steam navy is to be increased to 100 vessels in the whole.

From these statistics it is deduced that France, next to Great Britain, is the largest naval power in the world.

As connected principally, though not exclusively, with the army and navy, we may mention the "Order of the Legion of Honor," which was instituted by Napoleon. The usual title to admission is the discharge of important duties, either civil or military, and in time of war the performance of some act of great bravery. The grades are:—1. Chevaliers, of whom the number is unlimited; 2. Officers, limited by the laws of the order to 2,000; 3. Commanders, limited to 400; 4. Grand Officers, to 160; and 5. Grand-Crosses, to 80. These laws, however, have been superseded, and a larger number of officers instituted. The order embraces from 50,000 to 60,000 in all. Their reward is the "honor of the thing," and sundry decorations.

Trade and industry in France, previous to the time of Charlemagne, had been little developed. That prince, by wise government, gave an impulse to both, and extended commercial relations with several countries. He received Italian workmen into his dominions, repressed the excesses of the Norman pirates, and drew manufacturers from the cloisters to spread them throughout the country. The feudal times followed, and blighted the rising prosperity, and until the period of Philippe Augustus the barons kept the artizans in subjection. On the return of the crusaders from the Holy Land, a taste for luxury was introduced, and from this period may be dated the permanent prospects of French manufactures. St. Louis, Charles VII., Francis I., Henry IV., and Louis XIV., all encouraged this by wise laws, or by drawing into requisition the resources and luxuries of the kingdom. Agriculture felt the force of circumstances and leapt from its barbarity; new branches of industry were introduced, new roads to the interior were built, and new markets thrown open to foreign commerce. The artizans of Venice and Flanders filled the workshops of France, and

the prospects opened brighter every day. On the death of Colbert, and the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, A. D. 1685, all these bright prospects were ruined. From this period French industry pined under monopolies and corporations. The revolution of 1789, however, once more opened to the French the free exercise of their own industry. Science then came to its aid, and in a few years enabled Frenchmen to supply the numberless demands made upon their genius and labor by the state of warfare in which France so long remained with the rest of Europe. Its progress since has been sure, and with the short exceptions of the years 1814-15, entirely successful.

Agriculture is differently pursued in the several portions of France, and the system of culture as various. This branch of national industry, however, though not so successful as in England and the United States, is far advanced. The mischievous system of fallows has, in many places, given way to a regular succession of crops—the breeds of domestic animals have been improved—new lands have been brought into cultivation, and the culture of new produce introduced. Among the latter, the beet-root is a highly important article, yielding large quantities of raw sugar, and employing men and capital to a great amount.

There is no country where landed property is so much divided as in France; and an indefinite division will be the consequence of the present laws of devise. Each child receives an equal share of the father's lands on his death, and thus from year to year the farms are cut up. The consequence of this is, that the French are a nation of small farmers, and the abilities of each to introduce improvements circumscribed. To occupy a farm of 200 acres places a man in the foremost rank of farmers. Larger possessions are common in the pastoral districts, but such districts are rare; and in the greater part of the kingdom the farms under tillage are of 50, 40, 30, 20, or even 10 acres, there being, it is computed, not less than 3,000,000 of such petty occupants.

The peasantry of France are extremely illiterate, but are by no means slow or phlegmatic. They exhibit, like the rest of their countrymen, no small degree of sprightliness and activity in the individual, with very little concert or combination in the mass. The houses of the farmers, and still more those of the cottages, are poor, dirty, and comfortless; their implements are rude; their harrows have wooden teeth, and even the ploughs, in some less cultivated districts, are almost entirely of the same material. The corn and hay is stacked, but not housed; and the winnowing machine is nearly, and the threshing machine wholly, unknown. Thrashing with a flail, or trampling out the seed by horses or mules, are still prevalent. The food of the peasantry is exceedingly simple, and the villages they inhabit are often ill-situated and ill-built.

Arts and manufactures have experienced a more rapid development than agriculture. Steam-power is now generally applied. Immense progress has been made in the arts of metallurgy, dyeing, the preparation of animal substances, and in the weaving of various kinds of cloth; but it is in the manufacture of cashmeres and damasks, paper, watches, and clocks, fine and common pottery, in lithography, in dyeing silks and cotton thread and tissue; in paper staining; cutting and polishing crystals; the fabrication of arms and the preparation of chemical substances, that the greatest progress and improvement has been effected. Coal mining has been greatly extended, and the establishment of a great number of furnaces, the introduction of heated air into the process of smelting, and the use, which is



becoming daily more general, of iron in buildings, have given a lively impulse to the iron trade.

The woollen manufacture is one of the oldest and most widely diffused. The cloths of Sedan, in Champagne, and Louviers, in Normandy, are of the finest quality. The mountain districts of Languedoc, which contain immense flocks of sheep, are the seat of the manufactures of serges, tricots, and other coarse woollens; a great part of which is made at home during the intervals of out-door labor. Rheims is the chief seat of a highly-finished species of woollen manufacture, that of shawls, veils, ladies' cloth, &c. Similar articles are made at Paris, and the French shawls in particular now rival in beauty those of Persia and the East. About 20,000 are engaged in this branch.

The cotton manufacture was first introduced in 1770, and since 1812 has probably tripled in extent and importance. The principal districts engaged in this branch are Rouen, and the adjacent towns in Normandy; Lyons and Tarrare; Lille, Cambray, and other places in French Flanders; Paris and its neighborhood; St. Quentin, Abbeville, Amiens, and other towns in Picardy; Troyes, and the adjacent towns in Champagne; Mulhausen, Bischweiler, and other places in Alsace. The total number of persons employed seems to be 250,000.

A large number of people are engaged in the linen manufacture. In the north particularly, every farmer covers a little spot with hemp or flax, sufficient to employ his wife and daughters in spinning during the year. The whole of Normandy is engaged more or less in this important branch of industry. Coarse linens, canvass, and sacking, are made in Bretagne; but Anjou affords a superior article; the toiles of Laval have long been in repute, and give employment to more than 25,000 men. At Lille about 50,000 hands are employed in fine fabrics, and in the spinning of thread. Fine linens are manufactured at St. Quentin, and employ about 40,000 persons. Cambric, thread, gauze and lawn, rank among the leading manufactures of the north-east of France; and lace, of the most exquisite descriptions, is produced in large quantities at Valenciennes, Dieppe, Alençon, Caen, Bayeux, and Argentan. There are also large manufactures of printed linens; and the dyeing of linen thread gives rise to an extensive trade. At Rouen this branch is carried on, and linen articles of great variety are there produced.

The manufacture of paper has long been pre-eminent in France, and the finest descriptions are produced. The paper of Annonay has long been famous.

In the manufacture of silk, France bears the palm from the rest of Europe. Mulberry trees, which are indispensable for the support of the silk worm, were introduced in the 15th century, and were first planted near Tours. That town was the earliest seat of this manufacture, and it was not till 1660 that the culture of the mulberry was extended southward. It is now common to twelve departments. Besides the native product, much silk is imported, chiefly from Italy. The manufacture is considered important, and is most largely carried on in Paris and Lyons—in the latter city it gives employment to 60,000 or 70,000 persons.

The minor manufactures of France ramify through such a number of branches, that it would be tedious to notice them. Leather is manufactured to the yearly value of 65,000,000 francs. Jewelry, and watch and clock work, are made chiefly in Paris. Paris is indeed remarkable for every fabric of taste and luxury. The porcelain of St. Sevres, and the beautiful but expensive tapestry of Gobelins, are highly valued. Soap, oil, liquors, hats, perfumery, earthenware, salt-petre and other chemical articles, are also

manufactured to a large extent. In the manufacture of the finer chemicals, especially the vegetable alkaloids, the French have long excelled, and their articles have a preference in all markets. The total computed value of goods manufactured in France is about 1,600,000,000 francs annually. Trade is much more confined, however, to home consumption than in England. The only articles imported largely are cotton and silk; little is exported, and, as a consequence, the productive industry is not so liable to fluctuations as in countries depending on others as customers.

The fisheries of France may be divided into three classes; the home fisheries—the cod fisheries on the Banks of Newfoundland—and the whale fisheries. The home fisheries, being little calculated for forming seamen, have been neglected, while repeated attempts have been made by the government to extend the cod fishery of America. Enormous pecuniary bounties have been allowed for its encouragement, but still with little success. The fishery is not flourishing, and depends even for existence on the favor of government. The whale fishery was established in 1784, and is still carried on under a system of bounties, with almost as little success as the cod fishery. Havre is the chief depôt of the whaling business. Full statistics on the fisheries will be found in volume first, page 73.

As a commercial nation France is only second-rate, and vastly inferior to either Great Britain or the United States. The productions of industry, as well as those of the soil, give rise to a large internal commerce, but with foreign countries exchange is comparatively limited. The most important commercial towns are Paris, Lyons, Rouen, St. Etienne, Beaucaire, Aix, Toulouse, Montpellier, Lille, Strasbourg, Nancy, Mulhausen, and Perpignan. The inland commerce is chiefly transacted at fairs, which are held periodically in all the great towns of the republic, and the facility and cheapness of land-carriage, by railroads, &c., are peculiarly beneficial to the merchant. The extent of the business effected cannot well be ascertained. The chief articles of import from foreign countries are horses, cattle, raw silk, tallow, peltry, wool, leaf tobacco, dye woods, oil, various metals, hemp, cotton, indigo, sulphur, colonial produce, and spices. The principal exports consist of the manufactures of the country, wines, brandies, perfumery, &c., with fruits and confectionary. Paris itself furnishes more than a fifth part of the whole. The ports are Marseilles, Le Havre, Bordeaux, Rochelle, Dunkerque, Boulogne, Dieppe, Bayonne, &c. The average annual value of exports from 1825 to 1833 was £26,302,675 sterling; and of the imports, £24,932,829. The following comparative returns of the principal results of the trade and navigation of France with her colonies and foreign countries, during the years 1844, 1845, and 1846, will exhibit the movements it has effected in those years, and which, when contrasted with the results of the average given above, will indicate a favorable advance.

## NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF VESSELS EMPLOYED.—INWARD.

	1844.		1845.		1846.	
	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.	Number.	Tonnage.
French Vessels.....	6,392	679,066	6,920	746,310	8,184	879,808
Foreign do.....	10,070	1,359,789	10,775	1,439,320	12,113	1,680,290
Total .....	16,462	2,036,855	17,695	2,185,630	20,297	2,560,098

## OUTWARD.

French Vessels.....	5,369	577,032	5,739	651,670	5,595	654,972
Foreign do.....	6,396	674,101	6,813	734,822	6,623	709,806
Total.....	11,765	1,251,133	12,552	1,386,492	12,218	1,364,778

## OFFICIAL VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS IN FRANCS.

	1844.		1845.		1846.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
French Vessels.....	378,200,000	385,400,000	399,500,000	408,500,000	425,600,000	403,600,000
Foreign .....	454,100,000	440,500,000	474,000,000	454,700,000	468,500,000	456,100,000
Total.....	832,300,000	825,900,000	873,500,000	863,200,000	894,100,000	859,700,000
By Land .....	360,600,000	320,900,000	366,600,000	324,200,000	363,300,000	318,500,000
Grand Total.....	1,192,900,000	1,146,800,000	1,240,100,000	1,187,400,000	1,257,400,000	1,178,200,000

## OFFICIAL VALUE OF \*SPECIAL TRADE IN FRANCS.

	1844.	1845.	1846.
Imports .....	867,400,000	857,200,000	933,000,000
Exports.....	790,400,000	848,100,000	851,000,000

The distribution of the foreign commerce of France, and the amount of transactions with each country, is exhibited in the following table, which is abstracted from the "Tableau General du Commerce de France" for 1846, published by the administration of Commerce at Paris.

COUNTRIES.	Imported into France. Franks.	Exported from France. Franks.
Great Britain.....	79,000,000	113,000,000
United States .....	111,000,000	100,000,000
Sardinia .....	107,000,000	49,000,000
Belgium .....	101,000,000	48,000,000
Russia .....	52,000,000	—
German Union.....	47,000,000	62,000,000
Martinique.....	—	22,000,000
Turkey .....	38,000,000	—
Spain .....	36,000,000	73,000,000
Switzerland .....	20,000,000	47,000,000
Algeria.....	—	94,000,000

The following are the estimated amounts of the principal imports and exports for the same year :

Imports.	Exports.
Cotton, raw..... 114,000,000 fr.	Silks, figured..... 146,000,000 fr.
Corn..... 90,000,000	Cotton cloth..... 140,000,000
Silk, raw .....	Woollen cloth..... 100,000,000
Timber..... 53,000,000	Wines..... 46,000,000
Sugar .....	Toys .....
Wool .....	Hides, wrought..... 27,000,000
Coal..... 29,000,000	Linen and Hemp cloth..... 28,000,000
	China and glass..... 21,000,000

The "Bank of France" is the only privileged institution of the kind in the country. It was first chartered in 1803, for a period of fifteen years, but the period was subsequently prolonged. The following will exhibit its assets and liabilities on the 25th June 1846, a date which we choose from its connection with the commercial statistics above given, and which is preferable to the vacillating returns exhibited since the revolution.

Assets.	Liabilities.
1. Specie and bills due..... 35,585,170 fr.	1. Circulation .....
2. Loans and discounts..... 206,748,008	2. Accounts current..... 130,205,140
3. Accounts current, &c..... 93,709,462	3. Capital and reserves..... 81,900,000
4. Rents, public and reserved bonds..... 58,331,792	4. Miscellaneous articles..... 9,116,411
5. Credits..... 91,631	Total .....
Total .....	454,466,764 fr.

Previous to the revolution, it issued notes of two values only, viz : 1,000 francs and 500 francs ; but since that period the law has been modified, and

\* Exclusive French.

also several issue branches been instituted in distant departments. The bank is under the direction of a governor named by the president, two deputy governors, and a number of directors. The branches are managed by similar officers, who are all accountable to the central institution, and render weekly reports thereto, which are published in the aggregate of the general bank accounts. There is besides a separate council for the discount department, composed of twelve members, chosen from such of the share holders as are merchants. The business consists in discounting bills, making advances on government securities, or on the deposits of bullion, foreign coin, diamonds, shares, &c. &c., and has, since the revolution, greatly aided from its resources the establishment of the Republic.

The avenues of internal communication in France are entrusted to the management of the board of roads, bridges and mines. The business connected with this board is very extensive, and looks to the general safety of the great travelling public. The corps of engineers of roads and bridges is composed chiefly of the most distinguished pupils of the "Ecole Polytechnique." The Republic is divided into 12 inspections, entrusted to division inspectors, and under these are chief engineers, who reside in the principal towns of the departments composing the inspections respectively. There are in France 23 high roads, which are well kept; 97 departmental roads, and a great number of cross or country roads. The high roads extend altogether 8,623 leagues; departmental roads, 8,505—in all, 26,792 leagues, or about 72,000 miles. The railroads of France centre at Paris, and thence diverge to every point. These means of conveyance, however, are not so extensive as in either Belgium or England. "In 1842," says Williams, in his "Railroad and Steamboat companion," a work of inestimable value to travellers in the United States, "the French government resolved that a system of railways should be planned and executed. With this view, it was determined that from Paris, as a centre, main branch lines should issue, to be directed to those points of the frontier, by land and by sea, that should best serve the purposes of foreign commerce. In 1844, there were 537 miles of railway open to the public, absorbing a capital of \$57,320,000; in progress of construction 1,837 miles, and 961 miles projected. When these are completed, the total length will be 3,235 miles, requiring the enormous capital of \$355,977,000. The great Northern Railway, which unites Paris with Brussels, is now open, and it is said to be the most gigantic railway concern in the hands of any one company in the world. It will have need of 3,250 carriages and 175 locomotives. It has occupied four years in its construction, and cost 180,000,000 francs. Most of the railways of France have been undertaken by the government, and when completed, are leased for a term of years to companies or individuals, on complying with certain conditions. At the expiration of 40 years they will revert again to the government, and in about 90 years private companies will cease to exist, except such as the government may think fit to re-constitute."

In France there are 86 canals, forming altogether a length of 3,786,894 metres,\* or 2,350 miles. The principal are the Canal du Midi, opened in 1681, in length 244,092 metres; the Canal du Centre, opened 1791, in length 116,812 metres; the Canal du Rhone au Rhine, 302,160 metres; the Canal du Bourgnagne, 241,469 metres; and the Canaux de St. Quentin, de Crozat, Somme, Briare, Orleans, Ile et Rance, Brittany, Nivernais, Ourcq, Loire and Berry.

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\* A metre is equal to 39.37100 inches, or rather more than a yard.

## 174 STATISTICS OF THE EIGHTY-SIX DEPARTMENTS OF FRANCE.

NAMES OF DEPARTMENTS.	Area in sq. Geog. miles	No. of Arrond.	No. of Cantons.	No. of Communes	CAPITALS.	Distance from Paris.
Ain	1,700	5	35	443	Bourg	230 SE.
Aisne	2,179	5	37	839	Laon	75 NE.
Allier	1,689	4	26	323	Moulins	168 S. by E.
Alpes (Basses)	2,122	5	30	257	Digne	380 SSE.
Alpes (Hautes)	1,586	3	24	189	Gap	350 SSE.
Ardeche	1,595	3	31	329	Privas	310 S. by E.
Ardennes	1,474	5	31	478	Mezieres	125 NE. by E.
Ariege	1,635	3	20	336	Foix	415 S.
Aube	1,760	5	26	447	Troyes	90 SE.
Aude	1,837	4	31	433	Carcassonne	304 S.
Aveyron	2,566	5	42	230	Rhodez	316 S.
Bouches du Rhone	1,474	3	27	106	Marseille	420 SSE.
Calvados	1,632	6	37	804	Caen	122 W. by N
Cantal	1,576	4	23	266	Aurillac	270 S.
Charente	1,711	5	29	453	Angoulême	247 SSW.
Charente (Inf.)	1,769	6	40	480	Rochelle	250 SW.
Cher	2,075	3	29	297	Bourges	120 S.
Correze	1,674	3	29	291	Tulle	254 S. by W.
Corsica	2,852	5	60	355	Ajaccio	560 SE.
Cote d'Or	2,551	4	36	727	Dijon	165 SE.
Cotes du Nord	2,164	5	48	375	St. Brieux	237 W.
Creuse	1,548	4	25	276	Gueret	190 S. by W.
Dordogne	2,738	5	47	582	Perigueux	270 S. by W.
Doubs	1,592	4	27	640	Besançon	217 SE. by E.
Drome	1,911	4	28	359	Valence	302 SSE.
Eure	1,690	5	36	798	Evreux	55 W. by N.
Eure et Loir	1,753	4	24	442	Chartres	46 SW.
Finistere	2,017	5	43	281	Quimper	305 W. by S.
Gard	1,744	4	38	342	Nîmes	370 S. by E.
Garonne (Haut)	1,954	4	39	599	Toulouse	370 S. by W.
Gers	1,789	5	29	498	Auch	374 S. by W.
Gironde	2,981	6	48	543	Bordeaux	312 SSW.
Herault	1,815	4	35	329	Montpellier	375 S. by E.
Ille et Vilaine	1,849	6	43	349	Rennes	190 W. by S.
Indre	2,041	4	23	249	Chateauroux	148 S. by W.
Indre et Loir	1,871	3	24	285	Tours	125 SW. by S.
Iser	2,419	4	45	555	Grenoble	305 SE. by S.
Jura	1,464	4	32	575	Lons le Saulnier	215 SE.
Landes	2,645	3	28	339	Mont de Marsan	373 SSW.
Loir et Cher	1,861	3	24	296	Blois	100 SW. by S
Loire	1,344	3	28	318	Montrbrison	239 SSE.
Loire (Haute)	1,442	3	28	266	Le Puy	276 S. by E.
Loire (Inf.)	1,773	5	45	206	Nantes	215 WSW.
Loiret	2,051	4	31	348	Orleans	69 SSW.
Lot	1,525	3	29	300	Cahors	310 S. by W.
Lot et Garonne	1,395	4	35	354	Agen	336 S. by W.
Lozere	1,482	3	27	188	Mende	307 S. by E.
Maine et Loire	2,094	5	34	384	Angers	166 SW. by W
Manche	1,754	6	49	645	St. Lo	158 W. by N.
Marne	2,358	5	32	690	Chalons-sur Marne	95 E.
Marne (Haute)	1,812	3	28	550	Chaumont	140 ESE.
Mayenne	1,507	3	27	275	Laval	150 WSW.
Meurthe	1,621	5	29	714	Nancy	180 E.
Meuse	1,759	4	28	589	Bar-le-Duc	130 E.
Morbihan	2,073	4	37	228	Vannes	250 WSW.
Moselle	1,955	4	27	604	Metz	176 E.
Nievre	1,997	4	25	317	Nevers	135 S. by E.
Nord	1,632	7	60	660	Lille	130 N. by E.
Oise	1,716	4	35	683	Beauvais	43 N. by W.
Orne	1,632	4	36	534	Alençon	107 W. by S.
Pas de Calais	1,949	6	43	903	Arras	102 N. by E.
Puy de Dome	2,356	5	47	444	Clermont	220 S. by E.
Pyrenees (Bas)	2,223	5	40	630	Pau	411 SSW.
Pyrenees (Hautes)	1,347	3	26	492	Tarbes	409 S. by W.
Pyrenees (Orient)	1,197	3	17	226	Perpignan	430 S.
Rhin (Bas)	1,214	4	33	544	Strasbourg	250 E.
Rhin (Haut)	1,120	3	29	489	Colmar	240 E. by S.
Rhone	814	2	25	253	Lyon	248 SSE.
Saone (Haut)	1,497	3	28	651	Vesoul	196 ESE.
Saone et Loire	2,493	5	48	592	Macon	213 SE. by S.
Sarthe	1,860	4	33	394	Le Mans	119 SW. by W
Seine	138	3	8	81	PARIS	
Seine (Inf.)	1,732	5	29	556	Rouen	70 NW.
Seine et Marne	1,734	6	36	687	Melun	28 SE.
Seine et Oise	1,690	5	50	757	Versailles	10 SW.
Sevres (Deux)	1,702	4	31	356	Niort	223 SW. by S.
Somme	1,758	5	41	835	Amiens	73 N.
Tarn	1,668	4	35	327	Alby	343 S.
Tarn et Garonne	1,043	3	24	191	Montauban	342 S. by W
Var	2,122	4	35	210	Draguignan	423 SSE.
Vaucluse	963	4	22	148	Avignon	367 SSE.
Vendee	1,964	3	30	294	Bourbon-Vendee	243 SW.
Vienne	2,010	5	31	300	Poitiers	195 SW. by S.
Vienne (Haute)	1,666	4	27	198	Limoges	220 S. by W.
Vosges	1,451	5	30	547	Epinal	195 E. by S.
Yonne	2,095	5	37	481	Auxerre	92 SE
	153,929	363	2,845	38,623		

France possesses a prodigious number of towns with populations of from five to thirty thousand, and more particularly about twelve thousand, but not many with a larger amount of inhabitants. Paris, the capital, has a population of nearly 1,000,000, which is about two-fifths that of London. The other chief towns are Lille, Rouen, Strasbourg, Nantes, Boulogne, Havre, Rheims, Brest, Cambrai, Lyons, Marseilles, Toulon, Aix, Grenoble, Clermont, Besançon, St. Etienne, Dunkerque, Amiens, and Orleans. Havre is the principal port on the north of France; and Marseilles and Toulon are the principal outlets on the south.

PARIS, the capital, so celebrated in the history of Europe, and so adorned by the liberality of the kings of France and the genius of the French people, is a most beautiful city. It is the centre of the magnificence, the genius, and enterprise, of the whole continent. Here reside the most learned and accomplished men of France—the orator, the poet, the statesman; and hence diverge the radii, which illumine the whole world with the bright scintillations of science and literature. The fine arts here find an asylum; and whatever betides—if revolution follows on revolution, and kings and emperors are debased to the dust,—the grandeur of the city still remains, a monument of glory, and a true index of the transcendent genius of the nation.

Paris is built on a plain on both sides of the Seine, in latitude  $48^{\circ} 50'$  north, and longitude  $2^{\circ} 20'$  east from Greenwich, about 97 miles from the sea. It extends along the river four and a half miles, and covers an area of 34,000,762 square metres, its greatest breadth being three and a half miles.

The construction of the city is irregular, the houses lofty, and the streets narrow, with the exception of a few—as the Rue de la Paix, Castiglione, Rivoli, Royale, &c., which are truly magnificent. The elegance and taste displayed in the arrangement of the stores, the splendor and richness of the *Passages* Vivienne, Colbert, Vero-Dodat, Choiseul, de l'Opera, des Panormas, &c., and the galleries sparkling with bronze and gilding, strongly excite the wonder of strangers. The interior northern Boulevards pass through the finest portions of the city, from the canal of St. Martin to the Madeleine, forming a long semi-elliptical walk, planted with trees, and lined with houses of various architecture, some of which are private residences, and others stores, hotels, and theatres. From the Boulevards other streets open, which are crowded with a prodigious concourse of people, which gives to the scene the appearance of a perpetual fair. The two triumphal arches of St. Denis and St. Martin add to the fineness of the sight. It is only, however, a few years since foot-pavements were first introduced, and the streets in the more ancient parts of the city are still without any accommodation of this sort for foot passengers.

The principal public “places,” which adorn Paris, are :—the Place Vendôme, in the centre of which is the column and statue of Napoleon. The surface is of bronze, made of cannon taken from the Austrians and Russians in 1805, and is covered with figures emblematic of his victories. The Place des Victories, the Place Royale, the Place du Chatélet, the Place du Carusel, the Place de la Bourse, &c., are equally splendid, and contain a number of public edifices and works of art. The Place Louis XV., now called the Place de la Concorde, is a point from which the view embraces the vast walk of the Champs Elysees, the colossal arch de l'Etoile, the Palais Bourbon, the Garde Meuble, and the Tuilleries. In the centre of it stands the obelisk of Luxor, an immense block of stone, brought from Egypt at the expense of great labor and a large outlay of money. The

Place de la Bastille is the site of the state prison, which was demolished by the revolutionary mob in 1789. A fine bronze pillar, commemorative of the citizens who were killed during the three days of July, 1830, is raised in its place.

The Palace of the Tuilleries, now converted into a hospital, is an extensive pile of heavy architecture, with a fine public garden, the most frequented promenade in Paris, extending half a mile along the Seine. The Louvre, joined to the Tuilleries by a long gallery, is celebrated for its rich collection of pictures. The Palais Royal, the Palais Bourbon, and the Luxembourg, are places of great historical interest. The Hotel des Invalides is occupied by veteran soldiers, and, with its church, forms one of the most magnificent public buildings. The other public buildings of note are the Hotel de Ville, the Bourse, the Palais du Justice, and the École Militaire.

The churches of Paris are no less an ornament than a chief feature in Parisian architecture. The metropolitan cathedral of Notre Dame, a large and magnificent Gothic building, with two towers, is built on an island in the Seine, (the original Paris, and still called the city.) The Pantheon rivals St. Paul's of London, and is much similar in appearance. The Madeleine, or Church of St. Mary Magdalene, is a superb edifice, in the form of a Greek peripteral temple, highly adorned with sculpture. The Church of St. Germain-des-Prés is considered the oldest in Paris.

There are 12 civil hospitals in Paris, 5 military, and 13 "hospices," or houses of refuge. The Hotel Dieu, near Notre Dame, and the Sal Petriere, &c., are the best known. At the head of the military hospitals is the Hotel des Invalides, already alluded to; and next to it is that of Val de Grace. Few cities are endowed with such magnificent charitable institutions.

The bridges which span the Seine are twenty-two in number. The principal are those of Jena, Austerlitz, Louis XVI., the Pont-Neuf, (the centre of which rests on the Island du Palais;) the Pont Royal; the Pont des Arts, (made of iron, and remarkable for its elegance;) the Pont du Carrousel, (cast iron on stone pillars.) The banks of the river are lined with spacious quays, throughout its whole course within the city, and are in some parts ornamented with trees. The streets are cleansed by means of 500 sluices, and there are 115 public wells. The water is derived chiefly from the Seine, but partly from the Canal de l'Ourcq. There is no such thing in Paris as the system of underground water-pipes, which convey so abundant a supply of water to all parts, as in New-York, Philadelphia and Boston, in America, and in London and Liverpool, in England.

The literary and scientific institutions of Paris are on the largest scale, and all are accessible to the public. The University, the College of France, the Museum of Natural History, (Jardin des Plantes;) the Conservatory of Arts and Trades, and the National Observatory, are among the principal of this class, and there are many others, too numerous, indeed, to mention. Paris contains about 40 public libraries; of these the Bibliotheque Nationale, (du Roi,) is the richest and largest in the world. This vast establishment contains no less than 900,000 books and printed pamphlets; 80,000 manuscripts; 1,600,000 engravings; 300,000 maps and charts; and a most valuable collection of medals and antiquities. Of the others, those of the Arsenal, the Pantheon, and the Institute of France, are the most important. With respect to the printing and publishing of books, London alone can compete with Paris. Besides 200 periodical journals, the publishers of Paris give to the world annually between 5,000 and 6,000 works;

and the 80 printing-houses, the number fixed by law, employ from 1,200 to 1,300 hand-presses, and 80 printing machines, several of which are moved by steam. The *Imprimerie Royale*, founded by Francis I., in 1531, is the principal establishment of the kind in existence. Its fonts of types weigh not less than 368 tons, and could compose 125,000 pages. Of late years this establishment has kept 300 presses at work, 60 of them moving night and day.

The cemeteries or burial grounds are all without the city. They are five in number, and form large enclosures, laid out in the most picturesque style, with monuments often in good taste, and containing interesting inscriptions. The Cemetery of *Pere la Chaise* in particular, is one of the most beautiful as well as the most interesting sights in Paris. Formerly the burying places were in the city; but in consequence of becoming extremely crowded and giving rise to pestilential diseases, they were all cleared out; and the bones, carefully collected and cleaned, have been deposited in subterranean galleries, excavated in the course of ages for the stones used in building the city. To these depositories the name of *catacombs* has been given, in imitation of those of Rome and other places. It is supposed that the remains of 3,000,000 human beings are here deposited.

The chief officer of the municipality is the prefect of the department of the Seine, within which the city is situated. The city itself contains 12 of the 14 *arrondissements* that compose the department, and is surrounded by a wall of about 17 miles in circumference, and a number of detached forts. All criminal matters are under the control of the prefect of police. The police of Paris has been brought to a most perfect system, and by means of numerous agents the officers obtain the most minute information respecting the character and pursuits of suspected persons. The prisons are under the prefect's jurisdiction, and are eight in number. The persons confined are divided into the following classes,—1. Those under accusation; 2. Debtors; 3. Political offenders; 4. Those condemned to one year's imprisonment; 5. Persons under trial; 6. persons condemned to hard labor; 7. Juvenile criminals; and 8. Women. For the purposes of police the city is divided into 48 districts.

The manufactures of Paris consist chiefly of articles of taste and all kinds of fancy work, such as jewelry, watches, artificial flowers, toys, and the like. Two of the manufactories, those of tapestry and carpets, and of snuff, belong to the government. In the first, called the *Gobelins*, from a dyer by whom it was instituted about the middle of the 16th century, is manufactured that beautiful tapestry, the reputation of which is spread over the world.

The octroi, or duty on goods entering cities, is levied at the gates, (of which there are 56 in the circuit of the walls.) The consumption of goods and food can thus be easily ascertained, as the amounts entering are invariably noted. The daily consumption of grain and flour is said to be 1,580 sacks of 139 kilogrammes\* each, and more than twenty cart loads of water-cresses are daily brought into the city, averaging in value \$60 each, and thus creating a daily business of \$1,200 in this small article. The municipal revenues amount annually to 45,000,000 francs, or upwards, and the total ordinary taxes paid annually by the Parisians are about 140,000,000 francs. The markets are conspicuous places, and in general of great beauty and perfect construction.

There is no city in Europe which contains a greater number of theatres

\* A kilogramme is 2lb. 3 oz. 3 dwts. and 2 grs., Troy



and other places of public amusement. The Parisians live in an uninterrupted scene of gaiety ; and in the midst of the greatest calamities the public amusements are always thronged. There are within the barriers 16 principal theatres, and both within and without, such places are innumerable. Paris likewise possesses several superb promenades, as the garden of the Tuilleries, the Champs Elysées, the garden of the Luxembourg, the Jardin des Plants, and the garden of the Palais National.

The origin of Paris is unknown. In the time of Cæsar it was the chief city of the Parisii, and occupied only the small island on the Seine, still called the Cité or Isle du Palais. In 486 Paris passed into the hands of the Franks, and was the capital of the Merovingian dynasty of their kings. Under the second dynasty it became the property of one of the great barons, the Count of Paris, and towards the close of the ninth century it was erected into a new fief, under the title of the Duchy of France. In 987, Hugh Capet, the duke, was elected king, and the city was ever after the capital of the kingdom, as it is now of the Republic. The city, originally confined to the island, gradually extended to the opposite banks, and in the 17th century already occupied all the space within the boulevards, or bulwarks, which mark the site of its fortifications. Beyond these extended long suburbs, and in the reign of Louis XVI. a wall was built, which included these also. The detached forts which now surround Paris were projected and built by Louis Phillippe.

The establishment of rail-roads has connected Paris with every part of the country. There are a number of small places around the city to which the Parisians resort for pleasure and excursions, as the Londoners do to Richmond, Greenwich, and other towns about London. The mention of them could only interest those who could, from previous acquaintance, recall their many beauties, and indulge in reminiscences of past scenes, in which they may have been concerned. LE HAVRE DE GRACE, or, as commonly named, HAVRE, is one of the principal seaports in the Republic. It is situated on the right bank of the Seine, near its mouth, where the river is about three miles wide. It is strongly fortified, both on the land and sea sides, and contains a citadel, a naval arsenal, and a marine school. Havre is the port of Paris, and the harbor is generally crowded with vessels from the French colonies, and from the United States of America, with the latter of which it maintains a regular communication, by means of the United States' Ocean Mail Steam Ships, which call on their passage to and from Bremen. It also takes the lead in the whale fishery, and owns four-fifths of the shipping employed. The town is well built, the streets crossing each other at right angles ; and has been very much improved of late years. Ingouville, a suburb of Havre, contains a number of delightful country houses, and not far distant is the small seaport town of Harfleur. Population of Havre, 25,000.

DIEPPE, on the coast of the Lower Seine, 100 miles north-west of Paris, is a well-built and thriving seaport. Dieppe contains a college, a school of navigation, and a lace manufacture school. The inhabitants are largely engaged in manufactures ; especially, however, those of lace and ivory work. Its oyster beds give employment to large numbers. Population, 18,000. In its vicinity are EU, a small town with a college, a (royal) chateau, with a gallery of historical pictures, &c. ; TREPORT, a small seaport ; SAINT VALLERY-EN-CAUX, a small town, noted for its harbor, trade and fishery ; and FECAMP, a seaport and fishing town, with a considerable trade, and a school of navigation.

**DUNKERQUE**, one of the finest towns in France, is situated at the junction of the canals of Bergues, Bourbourg, and Furnes, and has a harbor and fine road. It carries on an extensive trade, and is largely engaged in the whale fishery. **CALAIS** is a fortified town on the Straits of Dover, and one of the most celebrated places in the history of France. It is the principal station of the steam-packets between England and France, and the centre of a considerable cotton manufacture. Population, 12,000.

**BOULOGNE-SUR-MER**, an important seaport in the Channel, is divided into the upper and lower towns; the latter built with great regularity, and possessing a magnificent sea-bathing establishment. The inhabitants are largely engaged in the coast fisheries. The town contains a school of navigation, a school of design, a library, a picture gallery, a museum, and other scientific and literary institutions. It is a great resort of English absentees and idlers. Population, 25,000.

**CHERBOURG** is situated on the northern coast of La Manche, at the head of a deep bay. It is one of the principal military posts of France, and immense sums have been expended in building docks and basins. The latter are large enough to contain 50 ships of the line always afloat, and the road and anchorage is formed and protected by a stupendous break-water, nearly two and a half miles in length, constructed in the sea at 40 feet deep. The work was commenced in 1784, and is yet incomplete. There is also a fine merchant-man's basin, capable of containing 100 sail; but there is not much trade, except in the articles of eggs and fruit to Portsmouth and London, sheep and cattle to Guernsey and Jersey, and mules to Martinique. The harbor is protected by the formidable battery of "du Hommet," with a double tier of guns. It was to and from this port that the "Royal French Mail Steamships," between France and New-York, sailed previous to the revolution.

**BREST** is the principal station of the French navy, and has one of the finest harbors in Europe, near the western extremity of the coast. The town is not large, but compactly built, and well-fortified. The harbor consists of a large land-locked bay, upwards of 20 miles in circumference, with two deep branches. It has but one narrow entrance, (gulet,) defended by forts on both sides, and by formidable bastions from behind. The water is deep enough for the largest ships, 500 of which can be accommodated at anchor. From 3,000 to 4,000 workmen are employed in the dock-yards and arsenals. Population, 32,000.

On the Atlantic coast are the ports of L'Orient, Vannes, and Nantes, (on the Loire;) La Rochelle, Rochefort, and Bordeaux, (on the Garonne,) and Bayonne. **LA ROCHELLE** is a strong town, with a safe and commodious harbor on the Basque Roads. Its extensive basins, its fortifications and public buildings, are the most remarkable structures. Its maritime commerce is extensive. This city is remarkable for the siege which the Huguenots, whose strong-hold it was, maintained against Louis XIII. and Cardinal Richelieu, in the year 1627-28. Population, 18,000. **ROCHEFORT**, on the right bank of the Charente, 20 miles from Rochelle, is one of the great military posts of France, and the capital of one of the military prefectures. Its harbor for merchant vessels admits ships of 700 or 800 tons. Population, 16,000. **BORDEAUX**, one of the finest, most commercial, and populous cities of the republic, lies on the left bank of the Garonne, 60 miles from the sea. In the old town the streets are narrow and winding, and the places irregular; but in the new town there are wide and straight streets, fine places, elegant houses, and several splendid bridges. Few

places, indeed, have been so thoroughly altered as Bordeaux within the last 40 years. Several Roman antiquities still grace the town. Bordeaux has manufactures and works of every kind; the most important of these are the manufactories of vinegar, nitrous acid, and refined sugar; distilleries, cotton spinneries, paper mills, manufactories of China, hats, bottles, stockings, &c. It is also the centre of the western wine trade, as well as a great portion of the central and southern. The citizens take an active part in the cod and whale fisheries, and 700 workmen are employed in ship-building. Population, 120,000. NANTES lies about 25 miles from the sea. It is one of the most commercial cities of the republic, and one of the principal in Europe. Ship-building is here extensively engaged in. Population, 90,000. VANNES is a thriving seaport. L'ORIENT is a fine town, built in 1719 by the India Company; its roadstead is magnificent, and its dock-yards on a grand scale. Little or no trade, however, visits the town. L'Orient is one of the five military ports of the Republic. PORT LOUIS is a fortified town, at the mouth of the harbor of L'Orient, with a citadel and heavy batteries, which guard the entrance. BAYONNE is also a noted town, of about 23,000 inhabitants. The bayonet, originally made here, received its name from the circumstance.

Toulon, Marseilles, Montpellier, &c., are ports on the Gulf of Lyons. TOULON, one of the principal stations of the French navy, is a large fortified town, irregularly built at the foot of a hill, and possesses a fine harbor and a roadstead, one the largest and safest in Europe. The harbor extends about six miles inland, is clear of obstructions throughout, with good anchorage in every part of it, and is well sheltered from storms. Population 30,000. Near it are *Cannes*, a small trading port, where Bonaparte landed from Elba in 1815, and *Frejus*, where he landed on his return from Egypt. MARSEILLES is a populous and commercial port. The finest part of the town is near the sea. The inhabitants are engaged in trade with the nations of Asia, Africa, and the European coasts of the Mediterranean. Extensive manufactures are also pursued here, and the institutions of science and literature are magnificent. It is one of the oldest cities in the republic. It was the birth-place of Petronius, the satirist; of Puget, the Sculptor; of Demarsais, and of Barbaroux, the Conventionalist. Cicero called it the "Athens of Gaul," and Pliny, "the mistress of sciences." The climate is delightful, but is sometimes disturbed by the impetuous *mistral*. MONTPELIER stands upon a hill, from which the magnificent view stretches to the Mediterranean and Pyrennees. The commerce of Montpellier is considerable, and the useful arts in a flourishing condition. It is celebrated for its botanical garden, and for its splendid literary institutions:—many remarkable men, whose names are now connected with history, were natives of this town. The admirers of "Young's Night Thoughts" may be interested to know, that the remains of his daughter Narcissa rest here, in a thick shaded and obscure vault.

The other principal cities of France are Lille, Valenciennes, Arras, Verdun, and Metz, in the north-east; Strasbourg and Colmar on the Rhine; Rouen, on the Seine; Nantes, Angers, Rennes, Mayence, Alençon, Orleans, north of the Loire; Tours, Bourges, Bourbon, Limoges, Angoulême, Cognac, and Montaubon, between the Loire and the Garonne; Toulouse in Languedoc, and an immense number of other inland towns, to mention which; is more than we propose, and their description must be sought in the Gazetteers. They are chiefly engaged in the manufactures, and some are centres of districts, and the dépôts of their manufactures and productions.

The ISLAND OF CORSICA is situated between  $41^{\circ}$  and  $43^{\circ}$  N. latitude, and  $8^{\circ}$  and  $10^{\circ}$  E. longitude, and forms one of the departments of the Republic. It is about 115 miles in length from north to south, and 64 wide, containing an area of 2,852 square geographical miles. The island is covered with mountains, and one-half incapable of cultivation. It produces a variety of articles peculiar to its latitude, and is much celebrated for its olive oil, silk, and wines. The coasts contain several good harbors, and the fine roads of Ajaccio, Calvi, St. Florenzo, Valinco, and Porto Vecchio would afford accommodations to numerous fleets. Notwithstanding these advantages there is not a single maritime establishment, and its magnificent forests are allowed to remain uncut—and its mineral riches, its marbles, porphyries, and granites, untouched. Coral is fished on the east side of the island, from Bonifacio to Cape Corse. Corsica was subject for a long period to Genoa, but was transferred to France in 1768. Population, 220,000. AJACCIO on the west, and BASTIA on the east, are the largest towns. CALVI is a small town, with an excellent harbor on the north-west coast. The only other towns worth notice are:—Corte, a small town high up among the hills; Bonifacio, a small seaport at the southern extremity of the island, and Porto Vecchio, which possesses a spacious harbor. The population of these range from 10,000 down to 3,000.

The history of France dates from a very early period. It was the scene of many exploits in the time of the Romans, by whom it was invaded and subdued. The French are descendants of these and the ancient Gauls, and their language a mixture of modified Latin and the tongue of the original inhabitants, but much altered in orthography and in tone of speech. For many centuries it was governed in a despotic manner by a line of sovereigns, from Clovis, in the year 481, to that of the Bourbons in the person of Louis XVI. in 1793.

One of these monarchs, Louis XIV., who reigned during the latter half of the seventeenth century, exhausted the resources of the nation in foreign wars and personal extravagance, and, besides, greatly corrupted the manners of the people. This laid the foundation of a course of events which terminated in the national ruin and fearful outbreak of the Revolution in 1789. This revolution deluged the country in blood, and ended with the establishment of a Republic; but this was speedily succeeded by the elevation of Napoleon Bonaparte, first as consul, and next as emperor. The career of Napoleon closed in 1815, with the battle of Waterloo, and the Bourbons were restored by the arms of Britain and other nations. The Bourbons were again expelled in 1830, and Louis Philippe, a descendant of the brother of Louis XIV. was elevated to the throne. France now became a constitutional monarchy, and so remained until the 22d February, 1848, when royalty was forever abolished, and the French Republic established. The consolidation of the government was effected by the promulgation of a constitution, liberal in its provisions and well guarded in the powers it delegates to the executive.

The French, previous to the middle of the last century, were possessed of many colonial dependencies in all parts of the world. In North America they occupied the present British colonies, and held, by right of discovery, the vast country west of the Mississippi. Their possessions in the West Indies were also extensive, and in Asia and Africa they had a number of settlements. They hold, at the present period,—in AMERICA, the islands of Martinique, Guadeloupe, Marie-galante, Saintes, Deseada or Desirade, and the east portion of St. Martin's, in the West Indies; St. Pierre, and Grande

and Petite Miquelon, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and Cayenne in South America; in AFRICA, Algeria; Senegal, and other territories on the west coast, divided into the arrondissements of St. Louis and Goree; the island of Bourbon, in the Indian Ocean, and that of St. Mary, near the east coast of Madagascar; and in ASIA, Pondicherry, on the Coromandel coast; Yan-aon, with its dependencies, and a factory at Masulipatam, on the coast of the northern Circars; Chandernagore, in Bengal; and Mahé, and a factory at Calicut, in Malabar—all in India.

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## THE REPUBLIC OF ANDORRÉ.

THIS is a small independent state on the south declivity of the Pyrennees, and consists of three mountain vallies and a basin formed by their union. It is situated between the department of Ariegé, in France, and the district of Urgel in Spain. These vallies are among the wildest and most picturesque in the country, and the mountains, with their numerous peaks, the highest and least accessible. They are watered by several small streams, which fall into the Segre, an affluent of the Ebro. The state is divided into six communes. Cattle-feeding, and the mining of iron, which find ready sale in Spain, occupy the people. It has been an independent state for more than seven hundred years, and is now under the joint protection of France and the bishop of Urgel.

The state is governed by a Syndic, who presides in the council of the valley, and two Vigniers, who administer justice, the one named by the president of the French Republic, and the other by the bishop of Urgel. Commerce of every kind is free with the exception of iron, of which it has many mines and forges. Its manufactures are of the coarsest description. The people all belong to the Church of Rome, and are very religious. Education is little cared for, and as a consequence few can read or write. Crime, however, is of rare occurrence. Andorré, the principal town, has 2,000 inhabitants.

It is to Charlemagne that Andorré owes its independence.

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## THE SPANISH PENINSULA.

THOUGH this peninsula contains two perfectly distinct and independent kingdoms, it forms only one geographical region, the description of which cannot well be separated according to political divisions. We shall therefore first describe the natural features of the whole peninsula, and then divide the remainder of our account into the two sections of Spain and Portugal.

The peninsula lies between 36° and 44° north latitude, and between 4° and 10° west longitude. The greatest direct line, from Cape St. Vincent to Cape Creuse, is 720 miles, and from the Point of Tarifa due north to Cabo de Peñas, about 530 miles; but measuring diagonally from Cabo de Gata to Cabo Ortegal, the length is 560 miles. The greatest breadth from

east to west is from Cape Finisterre to Cape Creuse, a distance of 630 miles; but in the middle region, from the rock of Lisbon to Cabo la Nao, it is only 500 miles, and at its narrowest part, along 40° north latitude, about 450. The superficial area is computed at 210,980 square miles, of which 176,480 belong to Spain, and 34,500 to Portugal.

The boundaries are :—on the north, the Bay of Biscay and the Pyrennees; on the south, the Atlantic Ocean, the Mediterranean, and the Straits of Gibraltar; on the east, the Mediterranean; and on the west the Atlantic Ocean.

The peninsula forms a remarkably compact geographical section, lying at the south-western extremity of Europe, with the continent of which it is connected by an isthmus, 230 miles broad. The interior may be considered as one vast table-land traversed by numerous mountains, and intersected by a succession of fertile vallies, from 1,800 to 2,600 feet above the ocean. Along the coast extends a narrow belt of maritime lowland, rising gradually from the margin of the sea, and broken by alternations of hill and dale, which produce a most agreeable variety of aspect, and present a pleasing contrast to the bleak and barren sameness by which the central region is characterised.

The surface, indeed, is strikingly irregular. It is traversed by long and lofty ranges, having plains of vast extent between them and the sea. The mountains may be considered as part of the great range which crosses Europe from the Black Sea to the Atlantic. The Pyrennees, common to France and Spain, form a long continuous line of lofty summits, the most central and elevated of which is La Maladetta, 11,424 feet in height. Towards the sea on both sides the elevations decrease, and present a less formidable barrier between the two countries. Offshoots of this chain penetrate Catalonia and Navarre, presenting also some striking insulated peaks, among which that of Montserrat is the most conspicuous. The Iberian chain extends from the western Pyrennees almost due south, and forms the boundary of the fine plains of Arragon and Valencia. All the other ranges have a direction eastward. The Calabrian range stretches across the whole north, covering the Asturias and Galicia. Parallel to this, on the opposite side of a vast plain, the valley of the Douro, is another transverse range, the highest points of which are Guadarrama and Somosierra, and which encloses with its rugged and romantic cliffs the elevated palaces of San Ildefonso and the Escorial. On the opposite side of the Tagus and of the plain of Madrid is the Sierra de Toledo. It borders the wide elevated plain of La Mancha, on the southern border of which is the more celebrated chain of Sierra Morena, the lofty barrier of the rich plains of Andalusia. Beyond is the Sierra Nevada, lofty, bold, and covered with eternal snows, and between these and the Mediterranean only a narrow though beautiful plain intervenes. These long and lofty ranges, as observed already, are separated by very extended plains, which in the interior are of great elevation, and even Madrid is 2,170 feet above the sea-level. The southern plains display a profuse fertility, and abound in the choicest fruits of the genial climate of the Mediterranean.

The rivers of the peninsula form as important a feature as its mountains. The Tagus and the Douro, rising in the Iberian chain, traverse the two central plains and pass through Portugal to the sea. The Guadiana passes through La Mancha and Estremadura, and on its approach to Portugal forms the boundary between the two kingdoms. The Guadalquivir is wholly within Spain, and has on its banks the noble cities of Cordova and

Seville, while Cadiz, not far from its mouth, forms the chief commercial emporium of Spain. Though impeded in its navigation and only approachable for large vessels to Seville, it is the only river in Spain of much commercial importance. The Ebro, rising in the Cantabrian mountains in the north, nearly crosses the breadth of northeastern Spain, but its banks afford little material for trade, except large quantities of timber. The Guadalaviar and Xucar in Valencia, and the Miño in Galicia, are also rivers of some magnitude. The mountains enclose no lakes, their waters finding a ready issue along the vast plains on which they border.

The northern coast, when compared with those of the west and south, is peculiarly devoid of extensive indentations, the bays of Santander and of Santona, and a few others in the Asturias and Biscay, forming inconsiderable exception. The Bay of Rosas and the Gulf of Ampola, in Catalonia; the Gulf of Almeria, on the coast of Granada, Gibraltar Bay and Strait, and the Bay of Cadiz, are the great indentations in the south. On the Atlantic coast the outline is irregular, but not so deeply penetrated, and with the exception of the estuary of the Tagus, no bays or gulfs of any magnitude occur. The most noted capes are Cape Finisterre, in Galicia; La Rocca or the Rock of Lisbon, and Cape St. Vincent, in Portugal; and Cape Trafalgar, Gibraltar, Cape Gata, Cape Palos, and Cape St. Martin, on the southern coast.

The **BALEARIC ISLANDS** are in the Mediterranean, and belong to Spain. These consist of Majorca, Minorca, Ivica and some others. **MAJORCA** is the largest, having an area of 1,360 square miles. The surface is hilly, and the northern half consists of high ranges of mountains, divided by deep vallies and gullies, bordered by precipices. The southern portion is finely variegated by cornfields, vineyards, olive groves, orchards and meadows. The whole country is well watered by rivulets and springs; and in some parts marsh predominates. The climate is mild and healthy, and winter little known. The principal towns are Palma, Falaniche, Manacor, Soller, Leuchmajor, Pollenza and Bonalbufar. **MINORCA**, 38 miles east of Majorca, contains 240 square miles, one fourth of which is barren and waste. The chief wealth of the inhabitants consists of wild stock. The island is of moderate height as approached from the sea, and its surface then appears level, with one remarkable exception, called Toro, having on its summit a convent dedicated to the Blessed Virgin. It has three excellent harbors: Port Mahon at the east end, Fornella on the north side, and Ciudadella on the west. **IVICA** is 28 miles long and 14 broad, and yields wheat and a variety of fine fruits, but its principal product is salt from the lagunes. The people are more attached to fishing than agriculture; the women only attending to the latter. The others are of little importance. The **COLUMBRETES** are a group of rugged rocks, 35 miles from the termination of the limestone range which divides Valencia from Tortosa. The principal of the group, Monte Colubre, consists of the remains of an extinct volcanic crater, and exhibits only lava, obsidian and scoria. It is literally swarmed with snakes. The **ISLA DE LEON**, on the south-west coast of Andalusia, is separated from the mainland by the Rio de Santi Petri, and forms the bay of Cadiz. The northern end juts out into the form of a long and narrow promontory, at the extremity of which is the city of Cadiz. The **BERLINGAS**, a dangerous cluster of rocky islets off Cape Carvoeira, are situated about 50 miles north of the rock of Lisbon, and **BENIDORME** is a similar island on the coast of Valencia, 20 miles north-east of Alicant.

The geology of the peninsula differs essentially in its several parts, and is possessed of no general determination. The nucleus, however, consists in whole or in part of primitive or transition rocks; but not only the species but also the relations of these vary in different chains. The Pyrennees are generally granite, with subordinate beds of gneiss and other primitive rocks. To a less extent the primitive formations extend through the Cantabrian range. The mountains of Castile and of Toledo are of the same character, and gneiss and granite appear to be their bases. The Sierra Morena contains principally transition rocks; and granite, which forms so prominent a part of the Iberian system, appears to be wanting in the highest southern chain. The middle ridges consist of mica slate, abounding in garnets, which in the ridges lying before them passes into less crystalline mica slate, chlorite slate and clay slate, which sometimes encloses beds of compact limestone, marble, dolomite and serpentine. On the south coast the newer transition slate and grauwacke slate, with beds of flinty slate, lie here and there in the older slate. The basis or fundamental part of Gibraltar is of these rocks.

The primitive and transition strata, in many different places, are rich in ores. The present mines are confined principally to the south-west and south-east. The mighty lead-glance veins of Linares occur in granite; the colossal deposit of lead-glance in the Sierra de Gador is distributed in masses, in old transition limestone, and the rich quicksilver mines of Almadar are contained in clay slate. The more important of the secondary rocks are variegated sandstone and marl, graphite limestone, and the white or Jura limestone. The sandstone and marl is rich in gypsum and masses of rock salt, and at Vellicas, near Madrid, there rests upon it that rare deposit of meerschaum. The lias formation is widely distributed in the north, and in the Biscayan provinces is remarkably prolific in an excellent iron ore. The vast beds of coal in the Asturias are exceedingly valuable. Some species of the chalk formation exist. The tertiary deposit occurs in several parts of Spain, and in the south it is much mixed with organic remains. Porphyritic and basaltic rocks extend from Cabo de Gata and from Airla on the north side of the Guadarrama range. The true volcanic rocks are found in Murcia and around Olot and Catalonia; about 15 distinct cones with craters occur in a space of 15 miles from north to south, and six from east to west.

The gold and silver mines, which supplied the ancients with these precious metals, are now, with the exception of the silver mine of Guadalcana and the gold mine of Adissa, in Portugal, either extinct or abandoned; but iron of the best quality, copper, tin, mercury, and, indeed, every valuable mineral, abounds in different parts of the peninsula. Coal and salt mines are wrought in the Asturias, Arragon and La Mancha, in Spain; and in Portugal beds of coal occur near Oporto. Precious stones occur in various places, and the useful descriptions are quarried from almost every mountain.

The vegetable productions of the Peninsula are rich and various; the principal of which are wheat, oats, barley, maize, rice, oil, sugar, hemp, cork, cotton, and almost all kinds of fruits. Andalusia is the granary of Spain. The olive is universal, and also the vine; but the eastern and southern provinces yield the best grapes. Forests of beech, pine, oak, and the cork tree, cover the mountain districts of Catalonia; and Biscay is still well wooded. The two Castiles are almost bare of timber. Spain is not excelled by any country in the abundance, variety, and delicious flavor of its fruits; and besides those of temperate climates, it also contains many of tropical



origin. Flowers and medicinal herbs grow wild in the mountains, and load the air with the rich fragrance of their perfumes. In short, such is the variety of the climate, occasioned by the difference of elevation, that there is scarcely a vegetable production of any country for which a fitting place may not be found.

The animal kingdom presents nothing remarkable. The horse is, however, entitled to particular notice. The Moors, when in possession of the country, stocked it with their finest breeds; and although the race, like everything else in Spain, has degenerated, it still shows many of the points by which it was once distinguished. The other domesticated animals are mules, asses, beeves, swine in vast numbers, sheep in millions, and multitudes of goats; nor are there wanting wild animals, as bears, wolves, and wild boars, which neglect and decay have left the undisturbed tenants of some of the wilder and more sequestered districts. The sea coasts abound with fish, which afford employment to many of the inhabitants, and furnish lawful food during the numerous fasts of the Catholic Church.

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## THE KINGDOM OF SPAIN.

THIS kingdom includes the greatest portion of the peninsula, of which we have already provided a sketch. It has an area of 176,480 square miles, and is divided into a number of large provinces, inhabited by people different in character, manners and customs, who speak different languages or dialects, and are separated as widely by their interests and feeling as by their locality.

From these circumstances it will be difficult to depict the Spaniards as a nation. The Castilians, especially those of Old Castile, are proud, gloomy and taciturn, more solemn and stately than the people of the other provinces, but as upright, generous and sincere. The Galicians are the most industrious, and are the general laborers and reapers of the peninsula—and their very name has become synonymous with servant. Next to them the Catalans and Valencians, though differing as widely as the Scotch and Irish, are the most active and enterprising. The Murcians bear the worst character, and are represented as lazy, plotting and suspicious, but the Biscayans are their counterpart, being laborious, frank and generous. The Estremadurians are indolent and vain, and in Andalusia the people are a mixture of the Spaniard and Arab, and partake of the joint character of the two nations. There are many minor characteristics which need not be mentioned.

What is termed the Spanish language is the speech of Castile. It is evidently a mixture of the Gothic and Latin, enriched with a number of Arabic expressions. This commixture was the result of invasions at different periods. The pure Spanish is spoken only by a few who took refuge in the mountains; but even among these, dialects are numerous. Previous to the Moorish conquest the Provençal prevailed in Catalonia; in Asturias, Leon, and Old Castile, the Castilian; in Galicia the Gallego, the parent of the Portuguese; while in Navarre and some parts of Biscay the Basque predominated. When the Christians recovered Spain in the eleventh century, their language spread with their conquests, and Spain became divided in this

respect into three portions. The Catalan, spoken in Arragon, extends from the Pyrennees to the southern borders of Murcia; the Castilian prevailed in the central districts from Asturias to Granada, and the Portuguese from Galicia to Algarve.

Old historians state, that in 1380 the population of Spain amounted to 21,800,000 souls. In 1681, however, the estimate was only 7,500,000, and in 1700 it amounted to 8,000,000. In 1723 it is stated at 7,625,000, and in 1726 at only 5,423,000. In 1769 it had increased to 9,301,728; in 1788 to 10,143,000; in 1800 to 10,351,000; in 1821 to 11,248,000; and in 1826 to 13,712,000; but according to the estimate published in August, 1837, it amounted only to 12,194,572, and now probably amounts to 12,500,000 beings, exhibiting a density of 73 to each square mile. According to the statement of 1826, the latest accessible details, the population was divided into the following classes:—nobility, 1,440,000; citizens, farmers, and others having the qualifications of electors, 1,560,000; citizens and householders, 1,573,686; employed in agriculture, 8,613,470; mercantile and manufacturing, 2,318,256; domestic servants, 276,000; vagabonds, 140,000; smugglers, 100,000; custom-house officers, 40,000; officers of the inquisition, 22,000; wandering beggars, 36,000; convicts, 2,000. The condition of this population offers the most extraordinary contrast. Priests, monks and nuns, composing the religious body, hold a ratio of about one in each fifty of the total. The distribution of the population is extremely different; in Guipuscoa there are 700 to the square mile; in Valencia and Navarre, 466; while, on the other hand, the provinces of Cuença, Salamanca, and Estremadura, are nearly as thinly peopled as Tartary.

Education is greatly neglected in Spain, and for this many reasons might be adduced, among which the natural dread, on the part of a corrupt government, of knowledge and its effects, is not the least. The priesthood is also instrumental in keeping the people in ignorance, well knowing that their own influence must decrease in a ratio with the increasing knowledge of the people. Spain, of all other countries of Europe, however, is the richest in endowed schools, but nowhere have the objects for which they were founded been so completely disregarded. During the last years of Ferdinand VII., education was entirely in the hands of the Jesuits, study of the physical and mathematical sciences was denounced, and many a university was dispossessed of its endowments. This lamentable state of affairs has since increased rather than otherwise; and through the efforts of the priests and co-operation of a despotic government, such schools as do exist are worse than none, and prejudicial to the morals of the community. The legislature will not interfere. Individuals, however, have been of late endeavoring to accomplish what the government will not. A society is now established for educational purposes, but its attention has been chiefly turned to the establishment of infant schools in the metropolis, and it is their intention to form higher institutions. With this exception, no effort is made to redeem the rising generation from the ignorance and debasement which now wraps the whole kingdom in gloom and superstition.

The Roman Catholic faith is exclusively professed in Spain, and in no other country has the church acquired more complete control of both government and people. The country literally swarms with ecclesiastical vampires in the shape of priests and monks, who live upon the fat of the land without contributing one iota to the welfare or improvement of the people. They

keep them, on the contrary, in an abject state of ignorance and superstition, and make everything subservient to their own interests. Perhaps the revolutions have loosed somewhat of their power; but still it is intolerable, and must long continue to retard social progress. The hierarchy consists of seven archbishops and 47 bishops. The archbishop of Toledo is primate of the kingdom, chancellor of Castile, and perpetual member of the Council of State. The clergy are paid by the state

Before the war of independence, (1808-'14,) the government was an absolute monarchy—and to all intents and purposes is still an absolute monarchy, the Cortes having lately been suspended. Spain, however, has a constitution, and the powers of the crown are circumscribed by its provisions. The Cortes, when in existence, consists of two houses; that of *proceres*, or peers, composed in part of hereditary members, and in part of members named by the sovereign for life; and that of *procuradores*, or deputies, elected by colleges of electors, who are chosen by the principal citizens. The Cortes have extensive legislative powers, but their existence and authority have emanated from, and are dependent on, the royal will. There are any number of privileged classes and privileged communities in the kingdom; but the people as a whole have only the privilege of obeying their superiors.

Spain, for judicial purposes, is divided into twelve royal courts, viz.—The royal chancery of Valladolid, the royal chancery of Granada, the royal council of Navarre, and the royal audiencias of Galicia, of the Asturias, of the Canaries, of Estremadura, of Arragon, of Valencia, of Catalonia, and of Majorca. These are again subdivided into *corregidorias*, each under a *corregidor*, to whom are subordinate a certain number of *alcaldes*, *mayores*, and other officers.

In judicial matters, the civil and canon laws are sometimes adhered to, and Spain has several ancient codes, which form, what may be denominated, the laws of the country. Lawyers are numerous, but not remarkable for their knowledge; and amid the multiplicity of municipal and provincial laws, they usually contribute to throw matters into greater confusion.

The system of taxation in Spain is very defective, and has nearly every fault that can vitiate a revenue system and render it a curse to a country. It is grossly unequal and arbitrary, and the functionaries employed in collecting it are, from the highest to the lowest, guilty of the most flagrant corruption and abuse. The revenue never meets the expenditure, and at present the whole accounts are in disorder, and unintelligible. The expenditure amounts annually to \$80,000,000, while the income seldom affords more than \$50,000,000. The national debt exceeds \$800,000,000, so that the whole revenue is not sufficient to meet the interest; and Spain is virtually bankrupt, without credit abroad, and without the means of raising at home a revenue sufficient even to meet the ordinary expenses.

For military purposes, Spain is divided into 12 great Captain-generalcies, and five smaller governments or commands. These military provinces are New Castile, Old Castile, Galicia, Estremadura, Andalusia, Granada, Valencia, Catalonia, Arragon, Navarre, Guipuscoa, and the Balearic islands; and the five smaller governments are those of Mahon and Iviça, dependent on the captain-general of Majorca; Campo de Gibraltar, in the province of Cadiz; Ceuta, on the coast of Africa, and the Canary Islands.

The army of Spain, once the finest in Europe, has declined since the 16th century, and at the period of the French revolution it was found to

be utterly inefficient and useless, and rather an encumbrance than an aid to the allies. The body of soldiers that exists at the present time are a scourge to the nation, and one of the greatest obstacles to its progress in civilization. The navy, though numbering so many vessels, is rotten, inefficient, and an unnecessary burden upon the country. Its force is represented at 21 vessels and 348 guns, all in commission, and four steamers; of the former, three are ships of the line. Previous to the French revolution, Spain owned 68 ships of the line, being at that period the second naval power in the world.

The three maritime departments into which the kingdom is divided, have their chief stations at the Isle de Leon, Ferrol and Carthagena, in each of which there is a captain-general of marine, with various subordinate officers.

With respect to industry and wealth, Spain, which has had every opportunity, from geographical position and its connection with a number of colonies for becoming the foremost nation of Europe, is now the poorest and most abject state in the world. Every branch of industry has been paralyzed by bad government. Bigotry has driven from the soil all the intellect and genius with which nature endowed the people. At the commencement of the 15th century, the country contained a numerous population of Jews and Moors, who formed its most industrious and wealthy inhabitants, and rendered it the most flourishing kingdom in Europe. Both were expelled by reason of their inconvertible faiths, the first by Ferdinand and Isabella, and the latter by Philip III. This ejection of the merchants and mercantile capital and genius has been sorely felt, and has struck deeply at the root of national prosperity.

Spanish agriculture has many obstacles to struggle against. The rugged heights are often barren, and prevent the transport of produce; but in these elevated provinces, where comparative liberty is enjoyed, we find the best cultivated districts. Otherwise the land is owned by a few who retain the many as so many slaves; and, as a consequence, improvement is out of the question, for however the value of land may be enhanced, the laborers fare no better. The farmers are, consequently, very poor, destitute of capital, and oppressed by the burden of tithes and other exactions.

The grain produced is of excellent quality, and the wheat of Andalusia brings 15 or 20 per cent. more in the markets of Cadiz than any foreign grains. It is a deplorable condition, however, which so fine a country, and one so thinly peopled, must present, when it does not grow corn sufficient for home-consumption, but makes regular importations.

Spain produces three valuable articles: wool, wine, and barilla. The wool of the merino is of almost unrivalled fineness. The wines of Spain are produced on the fine plains of the southern provinces. The most important are the Xeres or Sherry, which has come into such general use with the English. It is estimated that the plain of Xeres produces 40,000 pipes annually, of which 15,000 are exported to England. Around Malaga is made a wine still more valued, though not in such quantities, which, when white, is called "mountain," and when red, "tint," (tinto.) The northern and central provinces yield wine only of an inferior quality.

Barilla is produced by burning various species of saline and aromatic plants, in the provinces of Murcia and Valencia, and is one of the few articles which other nations can nowhere else procure of equally good quality. Silk and oil, in the Mediterranean provinces, are only limited by the wants of culture and demand.

No considerable manufactures have been pursued since the expulsion of

the Moors. That industrious people introduced the silk manufacture, a branch entirely suited to a country where the raw material is so abundantly supplied. This is now lost to Spain, except at Valencia, where about 3,000 people are employed. The blades of Toledo were once famous over Europe, and the city still has a royal manufactory of swords, though of little importance. Spanish cloths have also some celebrity, but no considerable amount is produced. Porcelain is made at San Ildefonso; paper in Segovia; cards and tapestry at Madrid, all rather for show than use. The greatest drawback on manufactures is a royal monopoly, assumed by the sovereign, who owns the largest workshop.

If the possession of the greatest facilities could guarantee prosperity to nations, then Spain must be one of the most prosperous commercial countries in the world. England is not better situated in this respect than Spain. Nevertheless, as in all other departments of Spanish industry, the whole commercial fabric is now a mass of ruins. It has been considered as of the utmost importance by the government, and has been used by the Solons of the country, as a child uses a bird, for fear of its escaping—it has been crushed to death. To absorb within its own circle the entire treasures of Mexico and Peru, was the first policy of the Spanish sovereigns. The gold and silver of those regions was to be brought exclusively to Spain, never to be taken out of it, and only the produce and manufactures of that country to be sent in exchange. By a sad fatality the commerce of the colonies was carried on almost entirely by French and English merchants; nearly all the goods exported thither were of foreign origin; and Spain, of all her neighbors, was the most destitute of the wealth accruing from the trade. These colonies, with the exception of Cuba, and Porto Rico in the West Indies, and the Philippines, are now gone, and with them the greatness of Cadiz, which, by the absurd monopoly granted to her, became one of the principal emporia of Europe. The trade of Spain consists now in the export of wines, fruits, brandies, wool, silk, lead, quicksilver, barilla, and a few other articles, amounting in the aggregate to nine or ten millions of dollars annually. The imports consist of sugar, cocoa, salt fish, spices, wool, rice, butter and cheese; hides, cotton, wool, and almost every species of manufactured commodity, amounting to about fifteen millions of dollars a year.

Internal communication, on which so much depends the development of a country, is a particular in which Spain actually labors under natural disadvantages, from the obstructed navigation of its rivers, and its long and steep chains of mountains. A few local canals, it is true, exist; but they are purely local. The main roads maintained by government between Madrid and the other great cities are good, but the most of the other communications are mere tracks, worn by the feet of mules, which are chiefly employed in the conveyance of goods.

Of the divisions of Spain, the most prominent are into kingdoms and principalities, each of which, at some period of its eventful history, enjoyed an independent existence, though they are now merged into one sovereignty. More recently the country has been split into a number of smaller departments or jurisdictions; but the original distinction into kingdoms being founded upon natural limits, and maintained by feelings and impressions derived from former independence, is still the most interesting. The following tables exhibit the divisions and subdivisions, with the extent and population of each, as published in a decree, 3d August, 1837, with the names of the principal towns in each:

TABLE of the FORTY-NINE PROVINCES OF SPAIN, with their Area and Population, and the names of their principal towns:—

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Area in Sq. mls.</i>	<i>Popula- tion.</i>	<i>Cities and Towns.</i>
<b>1. NEW CASTILE.</b>			
Madrid.....	1,315...	369,126..	MADRID, Florida, Casa del Campo, Getafe, Leganes, Chinchon, Alcala de Henares, Colmenar, El Escorial.
Guadalaxara....	1,946...	159,044..	Guadalaxara or Guadalajara, Siguenza, Brihuega, Trillo, Molina.
Toledo.....	8,774...	276,952..	Toledo, Aranjuez, Ocana, Consuegra, Madridejos, Talavera de la Reyna (Queen's Talavera).
Cuenca.....	11,304...	234,582..	Cuenca, Requena, San Clemente, Huete.
Ciudad Real....	7,543...	277,788..	Ciudad Real, Almaden, Almagro, Manzanares, Val de Penas, Almodovar, El Viso, Calatrava, Nuestra Senora de Guadalupe.
<b>2. OLD CASTILE.</b>			
Burgos.....	7,674..	224,407..	Burgos, Aranda de Duero, Lerma.
Logrono.....		147,718..	Logrono, Calahorra, Alfaro, Agreda, Ezcaray, Haro.
Santander.....		166,730..	Santander, Laredo, Santillana, Santona, Espinosa.
Oviedo.....	3,686...	434,635..	Oviedo, Aviles, Gijon, Navia.
Soria.....	4,076...	115,619..	Soria, Osma.
Segovia.....	3,466...	134,854..	Segovia, San Ildefonso, or La Granja.
Avila.....	2,569...	137,903..	Avila, Medina del Campo, Arevalo, Penaranda.
Leon.....	5,894...	267,438..	Leon, Astorga, Sahagun, Posafrada, Bembibre, Rueda.
Palencia.....	1,733...	148,491..	Palencia, Torquemada, Saldana, Corvera, Carrion.
Valladolid.....	3,279...	184,647..	Valladolid, Medina, del Rio Seco, Tordesillas, Penafiel.
Salamanca.....	5,626...	210,314..	Salamanca, San Estevan de la Sierra, Ciudad-Rodrigo, Bejar, Espeja.
Zamora.....	3,562...	159,425..	Zamora, Toro, Fernoselle, Morales, Benavente, Monbuey, Puebla de Sanabria.
<b>3. GALICIA.</b>			
Coruna.....	15,897..	435,670..	Coruna, Santiago de Compostella, Muros, Padron, Betanzos, Ferrol.
Lugo.....		357,272..	Lugo, Mondonedo, Ribadeo.
Orense.....		319,038..	Orense, Ribadavia, Monterey, Oencia.
Pontevedra....		360,002..	Pontevedra, Tuy, Bayona, Vigo.
<b>4. ESTREMADURA.</b>			
Badajoz.....	14,329..	316,622..	Badajoz, Albuquerque, Xeres, de los Cavalleros, Olivença, Zafra, Merida, Llerena, Cabeza de Buey.
Caceres.....		231,398..	Caceres, Cazar de Caceres, Alcantara, Valencia, Placencia, Coria, Trujillo or Truxillo.
<b>5. ANDALUSIA.</b>			
Seville.....	8,989..	367,303..	Seville, Guadalcanal, Cazalla, Constantina, Utrera, Carmona, Ecija, Ossuna, Estepa.
Huelva.....		133,470..	Huelva, Ayamonte, Moguer, Palos, Niebla, Aracena.
Cadiz.....		324,703..	Cadiz, Xeres de la Frontera, San Fernando, Caracca, Puerto Real, Medina Sidonia, Puerto de Santa Maria, Arcos de la Frontera, Rota, San Lucar de Barrameda, Tarifa, Algeziras, San Roque.
Cordova.....	4,159...	315,459..	Cordoba or Cordova, Baeza, Bujalance, Lucena, Fuente, Ovejuna, Hinojosa, Carlota, Montilla, Priego.
Jaen.....	4,603...	26,000..	Jaen, Andujar, Linares, Alcala la Real, Beaza, Baylen, Ubeda.
<b>6. GRANADA.</b>			
Granada.....	9,622..	376,974..	Granada, Alhama, Loja or Loxa, Ugijar, Huescar, Baza, Guadix, Almunecar, Motril, Torviscon.
Almeria.....		234,789..	Almeria, Adra, Dalias, Mujacar, Valez el rubio, Valez el Blanco.
Malaga.....		338,442..	Malaga, Marbella, Velez Malaga, Ronda, Grazalema, Antequera, Archidona, Estepona.
<b>7. VALENCIA.</b>			
Valencia.....	7,683..	451,685..	Valencia, Grao, Chelva, Liria, Murviedro, Cullera, Alcira, San Felipe (Jativa,) Montes.
Alicant.....		318,444..	Alicant, Onteniente, Denia, Gandia, Alcoy, Orihuela, Monovar, Elche, Elda.
Castellon-de-la-plana.....		199,022..	Castellon de la Plana, Segorbe, Alcora, Vinaroz, Benincarlo, Villareal, Peniscola, Morella.
Murcia.....	7,877..	280,694..	Murcia, Carthagona, Lorca, Archena, Alhama Caravaca, Molina, Moratalla, Totana.
Albacete.....		180,763..	Albacete, Chinchilla, Hellin, Villena, Almanza, Alcaraz.
<b>8. CATALUNA. (Catalonia.)</b>			
Barcelona.....	12,180..	442,473..	Barcelona, Villafranca de Panades, Igualada, Manresa, Monserrat, Mataro, Tarrasa, Vich.
Tarragona.....		233,477..	Tarragona, Reus, Valls, Tortosa, Alfaques or San Carlos.
Lerida.....		151,332..	Lerida, Corvera, Solsona, Cardona, Urgel.
Gerona.....		214,150..	Gerona. Santa Maria de Arens, Figueras, Rosas, Olot, Ripoll, Castillo de Ampurias.
<b>9. ARAGON.</b>			
Zaragoza.....	14,726..	304,823..	Zaragoza (Saragossa), Daroca, Calatayud, Tarazona.
Huesca.....		214,874..	Huesca, Jaca, Barbastro, Ayerbe, Mequinenza.
Teruel.....		214,988..	Teruel, Alcaniz, Caspe, Albarracin.
<b>10. NAVARRE.</b>			
Navarre.....	2,450...	221,728..	Pamplona, Estella, Tudela, Corella, Tafalla.
<b>11. GUIPUSCOA.</b>			
Alava.....	1,082...	67,523..	Vitoria, El Ciego, Salvatierra, Orduna.
Biscay.....	1,267...	111,436..	Bilbao, Somorrostro, Portugalete, Durango.
Guipuscoa.....	622...	104,491..	San Sebastian, Fuente Rabbia, (Fontarabia), Mondragon, Los Pasajes, Placencia, Tolosa, Vergara, Onate, Ernani, Segura.
<b>12. BALEARIC ISLANDS.</b>			
Palma.....	1,757...	329,197..	Palma, Manacor, Pollenza, Soller, Falaniche, in Majorca; Ciudadela and Mahon, in Minorca; Ivica or Ibiza.
<b>13. CANARY ISLANDS.</b>			
Canary Islands.....	3,220...	199,950..	Laguna, Santa Cruz, Las Palmas, Orotava, &c.

187,288..12,194,572

Few of the cities of Spain are sufficiently important to demand extended description, and fewer have any relation to the external affairs of the country. Their excellencies are found chiefly in the imagination, and grandiloquent eulogies of the enthusiastic natives. They have histories, however, truly heroic, and full of interest.

MADRID, the capital, is situated on some sand hills on the left bank of the Manzanares, about 2,200 feet above the level of the sea, in latitude  $40^{\circ} 25' 7''$  N., and longitude  $3^{\circ} 33' 8''$  west, being near the centre of the kingdom. It is nearly 8 miles in circuit, of a compact form, contains about 8,000 houses, 146 churches, chapels, oratories and other religious houses; 18 hospitals, 13 colleges, 15 academies, 15 public libraries, 6 prisons, 15 granite gates, 85 squares and piazzas, and 50 public wells, which supply excellent water, brought from the mountains 30 miles distant. The modern part of the town is fine, and the Calle de Alcalá is reckoned one of the finest streets in Europe, and is the only fine street in Madrid. The Royal Palace is a large square pile of buildings, each of its fronts being 470 feet in length by 160 in height, all built of white stone, enclosing a court of 140 feet square, and is fitted up with the greatest magnificence. The picture gallery is also another fine building. Every Spaniard is proud of the Prado of Madrid. It consists of a spacious walk of about two miles in length on the east side of the city, adorned with rows of trees and several fountains, and is the great resort of all ranks and classes in the evenings. There are also two promenades on the west side, very fine, but not so celebrated. Madrid has three theatres and several scientific and literary institutions, among which are the Royal Spanish Academy, the Royal Academy of History, and the Estudios Reales de San Isidro, a kind of university with 16 professors. The population is variously stated at 170,000 to 225,000. Madrid is probably the most expensive capital in Europe, being situated in the midst of a sterile country, where there is no pasture land, no rivers, scarcely any gardens, and no easy communication with the sea, or with any distant or more productive provinces; notwithstanding these drawbacks, the markets are well supplied.

Madrid has no suburbs—a hundred yards from the gates all is desert. The Escorial, one of the Royal Palaces, is situated in a desert at the foot of the Sierra de Guadarama, 34 miles west of Madrid, and 3,683 feet above the level of the sea. It consists of a monastery and a palace, forming together a stupendous mass of buildings, surpassing in its external decorations anything of the kind elsewhere to be found. The Escorial was built by King Philip II. in fulfilment of a vow made at the battle of St. Quentin, which he gained in 1557; and consists of a number of square courts built in the form of a gridiron in honor of San Lorenzo, the martyr to whose intercession he ascribed his success, and who is said to have been roasted to death on an instrument of that kind. It contains the splendid mausoleum of the Austrian and Bourbon Kings of Spain, a fine collection of pictures, a rich library, and a college. It is said to contain 51 bells, 48 wine cellars, 80 stair cases, 73 fountains, 8 organs, 12,000 windows and doors, 1,860 rooms, 1,560 oil paintings and fresco paintings, which if brought together would form a square of 1,106 feet. The circumference of the building is 4,800 feet or a little more than a mile. The palaces of San Ildefonso and Aranjuez are also fine buildings; the first on a recess of the mountains, and the other on the banks of the Tagus.

TOLEDO, the ancient capital, and yet the see of the ecclesiastical primate, is situated on an elevation nearly surrounded by the Tagus, 40 miles south-

west from Madrid. The city is old, ill-built, and in decay, but still possesses some remains of its ancient grandeur in the Alcazar, the palace of the Moorish kings, and its cathedral, one of the largest and most magnificent Gothic temples in existence, with a treasury in gold, silver and jewels, valued at \$47,000,000. It is *served* by 40 canons, 50 prebendaries and 50 chaplains. There are 58 other churches, and 36 convents and monasteries. Toledo is a very hot-bed of priests, attracted thither by the honey of the temple. Near the city is the celebrated manufactory of "Toledo blades." Population, 15,000. The revenue of the archbishop was formerly \$350,000 a year, but has, alas! in these degenerate times, fallen off to about \$200,000. The people are very poor. VALLADOLID was formerly a flourishing city, but is now much decayed. It has a university with 8 colleges, and is the seat of the royal chancery of Castile and Leon. There is also a royal chateau, the birthplace of several of the kings of Spain, and a magnificent cathedral. SANTANDER is a flourishing seaport on the Bay of Biscay, connected with the interior by a superb road. Population, 20,000.

CORUNNA is a flourishing commercial and fortified town, with one of the best harbors in Spain, and 23,000 inhabitants, a great part of whom are engaged in the manufacture of cigars, linen, hats and cordage. Near it are BETANZOS, a small town, with a good harbor and considerable trade, noted for its fisheries and light wines; and FERROL, one of the three great naval arsenals of Spain, with a very fine natural harbor, defended by formidable batteries. It has also a school of navigation and 13,000 inhabitants.

SAN SEBASTIAN, in Guipuscóa, is a place of considerable trade. It withstood the memorable siege of the British army in 1813, when it was taken by storm and laid in ashes. It has since been entirely rebuilt on a regular plan, and is now one of the finest towns in the country. Population, 9,000. VITTORIA, the chief town of Alava, is a fine city, on an island plain, 1,777 feet elevated above the sea. It is celebrated for a great victory gained in June, 1813, by the British and Portuguese over the French army. Population, 2,000. BILBOA, the capital of Biscay, is one of the most commercial towns in the kingdom. It is the great entrepôt of Spanish wool for exportation. PAMPLONA, the capital of Navarre, is a gloomy, ill-built episcopal city, and one of the principal fortresses of Spain. TUDELA is a commercial city on the Ebro, with a population of 8,000.

SARAGOSSA, an archiepiscopal city, is located on the Ebro, which divides it into two parts, connected by a bridge of seven wide arches. It is the residence of the Captain General of Arragon, and the seat of an Audiencia Real. It has several scientific and literary institutions. The fine church of Nuestra Señora de Pilar is celebrated for its sanctuary, which attracts a great number of pilgrims. Its churches formerly surpassed in riches and magnificence all the other churches of Spain; but most of them, as well as the other buildings, were greatly injured during the memorable siege which it sustained against the French in 1808. Population, 43,000.

BARCELONA, the capital of Catalonia, a large and fine city, is situated on the shores of the Mediterranean, and contains 120,000 inhabitants, all engaged in trade or manufactures. It is surrounded by fortifications, on which there is a delightful promenade; besides, there is the Rambla, scarcely inferior to the Boulevards of Paris. The city was founded by Hamilcar Barcas, a Carthaginian general, in 230 before Christ, and from him derives its name. Twenty-six miles from Barcelona is Montserrat, a rugged mountain, containing a magnificent Benedictine convent and a number of hermitages.



VALENCIA, on the Guadalquiver, lies in a fertile and delightful valley, and is one of the most industrious towns in Spain. Population, 66,000. MURCIA is a large city on the Segura, with a fine cathedral, an episcopal palace, and five colleges, &c., and 36,000 inhabitants; and GRANADA is situated on the Garro, near its confluence with the Xenil, in a plain renowned for its beauty and fertility, 2,314 feet above the level of the sea. Granada was the capital of the last Moorish kingdom in Spain, and still contains the palace of their kings, the famous Alhambra, which is reckoned one of the finest existing specimens of Moorish architecture, and the Xeneralite, their pleasure-house, but no description can convey to the reader any just idea of these buildings. The cathedral, also a fine building, contains the tombs of Ferdinand and Isabella, the conquerors of Granada, of their daughter Joanna, the first queen of Spain, and of her husband, the Archduke of Austria. MALAGA, so famous for its grapes, wines, almonds, and other fruits, is a fortified city south-west of Granada, on the coast. It carries on a flourishing commerce, and has a population of 60,000.

SEVILLE is one of the most ancient cities in Europe, and is still one of the richest and most important in Spain. Its public buildings are most magnificent. It was formerly the great entrepôt of Spanish commerce with America, but though the Guadalquiver is still navigable up to the city, yet the trade has disappeared, and now consists chiefly of the export of oranges, with which about 40 vessels are annually dispatched.

CADIZ, built at the extremity of a long promontory projected into the sea from the Isla de Leon, is a large sea-port city. Nature and art have contributed to render it one of the strongest fortresses in Europe. The tongue of land by which it is joined to the island is about five miles long, and in some parts only from 200 to 300 yards broad. About a mile and a half from Cadiz the tongue is crossed by a magnificent fortress called the Cortadura, erected in 1812, and which presents a formidable range of batteries, mounted by 140 guns. Before entering Cadiz another strong battery must be passed, so that the city may be considered as almost impregnable from the land side. The buildings of Cadiz are generally good and commodious, but the chief charm of the city is found in the delightful promenade its ramparts afford. There are few objects curious to visit, no antiquities, and few buildings worthy of notice. The principal of these are two cathedrals, the old one remarkable for nothing but its treasures and relics; and the new one chiefly interesting for a long time as a splendid ruin. It was begun more than a century ago, and was intended to be in the most gorgeous style of the composite order, but the funds intended for its erection failed or were diverted to other purposes, and the work was falling rapidly to decay—it is now in progress to completion, the bishop having for many years devoted his revenues to this purpose. The city contains 3,789 houses, 223 streets, 34 piazzas, 28 churches, 39 public buildings, 5 gates, and two theatres. The population amounts to 59,000. On the eastern side of the Bay of Cadiz is the sea-port town of PUERTO DE SANTA MARIA, with 18,000 inhabitants; at the mouth of the river Guadalete, and a few miles inland, the town of XERES, or Xeres de la Frontera, with 34,000 inhabitants; the latter celebrated for the manufacture, and the former for the export, of sherry wine. The annual average exported in 1835-'6-'7 was 28,657 butts, each containing 690 bottles,—altogether 17,176,200 bottles, or 1,431,350 dozens. Great part of the wine is exported to America, and yet the total amount exported is below the consumption of England alone! Xeres is also celebrated

as the place where Rodrigo, the last Gothic king of Spain, was defeated and killed by the Moorish invaders, in A. D. 771.

GIBRALTAR is an inconsiderable town of some 12,000 inhabitants, built upon the west side of Mount Calpe, one of the pillars of Hercules, which rises abruptly from the sea to the height of 1,439 feet, and is defended at every accessible point by formidable batteries. The mountain extends nearly three miles in length from north to south, and three-quarters of a mile in its greatest breadth, terminating in the sea at Europa Point, and connected with the mainland by a flat, sandy isthmus, 1,000 yards wide, but only a few feet above the level of the sea. The south and east sides form a line of almost perpendicular precipices, but the south and west sides fall in rugged slopes, with occasional flats or terraces. It derives its name from Tarek, a Moorish general, who first built a fort here in the 8th century. It was recovered from the Moors in 1462 by the Spaniards, from whom, in turn, it was taken in 1704 by the English, who have retained it ever since. It is now so completely fortified as to be deemed impregnable, and has always a garrison of about 3,000 British troops. The least accessible parts of the mountain are peopled by a colony of monkeys, the only animals of the kind in Europe, except their moustachoe confreres of the British military; they are protected by government, and it is not impossible that they may act as powder monkeys on special occasions.

CORDOVA is a large, ill-built and decaying city, on the right bank of the Guadalquivir. It was once the capital of the Mahomedan dominions in Spain, and still retains a splendid monument of their wealth and taste in the great Mosque, once reckoned second only to that of Mecca, but now converted into a Roman Catholic cathedral. In 759 it is said to have contained 300,000 inhabitants, but in this once thronged city scarcely 20,000 are now resident, and those are chiefly engaged in agriculture; for, with the exception of a very trifling manufacture of linen, there is no trade of any kind. The want of space compels an omission of other towns remarkable in a number of points.

#### THE CANARY ISLANDS.

THESE islands, though usually considered as belonging to Africa, form, nevertheless, one of the provinces of Spain. They are situated on the north-west coast of Africa, about 900 miles from Cadiz, between 27° and 30° N. latitude, and between 13° and 19° W. longitude. The principal islands of the groupe are Gran Canaria, Teneriffe, Palma, Gomera, Hiero, or Ferro, Fuerte Ventura, Lanzarote, Graciosa, Alegranza, Santa Clara, Lobos and Rocca. They are all of volcanic formation, hilly and rugged, and their coasts often precipitous. The mountain ridge, El Cumbre, in Gran Canaria, is 6,648 feet; Sancillo on the same island, 6,070 feet, and the Peak of Teneriffe raises its snow-capt summit to the height of 12,042 feet above the level of the sea. But the eastern islands of Fuerte Ventura and Lanzarote are almost as dry and sandy as the neighboring coast of Africa. Lanzarote is mountainous, volcanic, and has many extinct craters. Fuerte Ventura is, on the contrary, less mountainous than any of the others. Their principal articles of produce are wine, barilla and orchilla, which form considerable articles of export. They enjoy a delightful and very equable climate, but are subject occasionally to severe droughts, which, more particularly in the eastern islands, last occasionally for two or three years. In 1837 the population amounted to 199,150, but since that period large

numbers have emigrated to South America and the West Indies, probably 50,000, so that the population must be reduced by so many.

These islands were known to the ancients as the Fortunate Islands; but were almost forgotten till the 14th or 15th centuries, when they were re-discovered and conquered by the Spaniards, after a brave resistance by the original possessors, the "Guanches," who are now completely extinct, though some of their mummies or dried bodies are still preserved.

The principal towns are Laguna, 8,000 inhabitants, Santa Cruz, 9,000, and Orotava, in Teneriffe; Cuidad de las Palmas in Gran Canaria, a large, handsome town, with 18,000 inhabitants, and Santa Maria de Betancuria, in Fuerte Ventura. Alegranza, the north-eastern point of the Canaries, is a small island, consisting of a mass of lava and cinders, rising 939 feet above the sea, and forming a well-defined crater two-thirds of a mile across, the bottom being cultivated for barilla.

The history of Spain dates far back into the past. The first settlers of this ancient kingdom are supposed to have been the descendants of Tubal Cain, the fifth son of Japheth. The Phœnicians and Carthaginians successively planted colonies on the coast, and the Romans for a considerable period held the whole country. It was here that some of the mightiest efforts of Hannibal were displayed. On the decline of the Roman Empire, the country was over-run by the barbarians—the Vandals, the Alans, and the Suevi. It was afterwards subdued by the Visigoths, who laid the foundation of the present monarchy. The Moorish dominion over the southern portion of Spain lasted from A. D. 1091 to 1492, when Ferdinand and Isabella drove them from their strongholds. Spain now discovered America, and planted her colonies; few, however, at this day remain to her. Portugal was about this time annexed, but after a captivity of 60 years, again regained its independence. The French Revolution, and the events which succeeded it, prostrated this country, and all the power, glory and wealth it attained from the time of the first sole monarchs, vanished. It is now the scene of recurring revolts, and the liberties of the people are only repressed by the sword. No country in the world exhibits such a revolting absolutism as the monarchy of Spain, nor is there any people less capable of exercising aright the liberties every man ought to enjoy.

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## THE KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL.

THIS state is composed of the two kingdoms of PORTUGAL and ALGARVE; the former of which derives its name from a place named "Calé," beside which there was constructed a harbor called "Puerto de Calé," afterwards contracted to "Portugal." This port is supposed to have been the present city of Oporto, around which the original kingdom was spread. Don Alonzo, king of Castile and Leon, having conquered the province from the Moors, bestowed it, with his daughter in marriage, upon Don Henriquez, a grandson of the first Duke of Burgundy; and his son, Don Alonzo Henriquez, after a great victory over the Moors, in 1139, was proclaimed king by his army on the battle-field, and he and his successors ever after renouncing all subjection to the crown of Castile, gradually extended their con-

quests southward, until the kingdom reached its present limits. Algarve, *Arabicé* "Al-Garbh," (the west,) originally extended from Cape St. Vincent to Almeria, in Granada, and comprehended likewise the opposite coast of Africa, on which account the sovereigns of Portugal used to assume the title of Kings of the Algarves, on both sides of the sea, though they never really possessed more than a small corner of the African continent.

The existing kingdom is situated between  $36^{\circ} 55'$  and  $42^{\circ} 13'$  north latitude, and  $6^{\circ} 15'$  and  $8^{\circ} 55'$  west longitude. Length, 350 miles—width, 143 miles; area, 34,500, or, according to some, 36,596 square miles. It is bounded on the north by Galicia; on the east by Leon, Estremadura and Andalusia; and on the west and south by the Atlantic Ocean. The coast line of the kingdom measures nearly 500 miles. The northern coast is at first low, but afterwards becomes rugged and steep; in Beira, it becomes again flat, sandy and marshy; in Estremadura, it is in one part steep, in another almost a dead level, and very unsafe; and in Alemtejo, it is low, and beset with rocks and shallows. At Cape St. Vincent, in Algarve, it is high and rocky; but to the eastward sinks into low, sandy deserts.

The general aspect of the country is that of the peninsula generally, and has been heretofore described. The surface is greatly diversified by mountain and valley, and affords many romantic and picturesque scenes. The soil, for the most part, is light and shallow, but well-adapted to vine-culture and fruit-trees; and when sufficiently irrigated, is productive of the finest crops of grain. The climate is delicious and very healthy; and Lisbon is famous as a resort for invalids, whose diseases are benefitted by equality and geniality of warmth and moisture. From regions buried under the dominion of frost and snows, a short voyage conveys them to blue, clear skies, and a balmy atmosphere, perfumed by the orange and a thousand flowers, and blooming in eternal spring.

The vegetable and mineral products are similar in every respect to those of Spain, in the same latitudes; and every kind of fruit, the orange and the lemon—citrons, figs, almonds, melons and peaches, grow spontaneously. The wines of Portugal are generous, and esteemed among the best of Europe. Few forests of any considerable extent exist; but of all the trees, the cork-tree is the most abundant, and forms woods of vast extent. The animals are also those peculiar to the whole peninsula; but the horse is inferior to that of Spain, while the mules are strong, hardy, and sure-footed.

The Portuguese are of the same origin with a large portion of the people of Spain, and speak a dialect of the same language; but they cherish a deep-rooted antipathy to their neighbors, and exhibit in many points a strong contrast to them. "Strip a Spaniard of all his virtues," says the Spanish proverb, "and you make a good Portuguese of him." But says Dr. Southey, "I have heard it more truly said, 'add hypocrisy to a Spaniard's vices, and you have the Portuguese character.'" The morals of the nation are indeed low, nor is there any immediate prospect of amendment. The Portuguese are generally a robust, though far from an industrious nation; they are, nevertheless, enterprising and persevering, patient in adversity, excessively attached to their religion and customs, and generally retain a high sense of loyalty to their sovereign, and of submission to their spiritual superiors.

The Portuguese sensibly exhibit the effects of a warm climate in their

dark hues, and in those traits of national character usually found in southern latitudes. These are ardent passions, a strong propensity to revenge, superstition, indulgence and inane contentment. But it is not to be forgotten, that this small kingdom had a period of enterprise more marked than that of any other part of Europe, when, under Emanuel the Great, Vasco de Gama opened to Europe the road to India, by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, and assisted his compatriots in acquiring immortal honor. Albuquerque raised the glory of this period to the highest renown, and the poet Camoens published it to posterity. Though of the same origin with the Spaniards, the Portuguese exhibit many opposite traits. Almost every Spaniard smokes; the Portuguese rarely smoke, but most of them take snuff. None of the Spaniards will use a wheelbarrow—none of the Portuguese will carry a burden. The one says it is only fit for beasts to draw carriages—the other, that it is only fit for beasts to carry burdens.

The Portuguese language is derived from a Latin source, and so far bears an affinity to those of Western Europe generally, but it is mixed with many Arabic and Gothic words. In the construction of its sentences it has a close alliance with the language of Castile; but in pronunciation it is less guttural, and contains many words which seem to be peculiar to itself, the origin of which it is difficult to trace, though it is probably to be found among some of the tribes on the coast of Barbary.

Of the population of Portugal in early times we have no enumerations. In 1798, it was estimated at 3,683,000; in 1801, another estimate made the amount 2,931,930; and in 1836, the estimate was 3,061,684—showing an increase in 35 years of 129,754. It is now, probably, as stated in a former table, about 3,600,000. The distribution of the people in 1836, was as annexed:

District of Aveiro.....	214,610	District of Lisbon.....	438,106
“ Beira.....	98,519	“ Lamego.....	233,866
“ Bragança.....	114,501	“ Leira.....	117,144
“ Braga.....	308,576	“ Portalegre.....	82,410
“ Castello Branco.....	91,444	“ Porto.....	229,055
“ Coimbra.....	227,080	“ Santarem.....	174,480
“ Evora.....	77,593	“ Villa Real.....	161,430
“ Faro.....	29,562	“ Vincenna.....	152,003
“ Guarda.....	165,461		
		Total.....	3,061,684

Elementary education scarcely has an existence in Portugal, and consequently the people of the middle and laboring classes are lamentably ignorant. In the higher branches, however, the provisions are liberal, and Portugal has a university and a number of colleges of considerable celebrity. Statistics of a late date exhibited the following: The university of Coimbra, founded, in 1279, with six faculties, a preparatory school, and attended by 1,600 students; 322 Latin schools; 21 Greek and rhetorical schools; 27 academies for rhetorical and moral philosophy, and 863 elementary schools. The total number of scholars, besides those of the university, was 31,280. To these are to be added the following establishments: the marine and royal academy of Oporto; the academy at Lisbon; the Lisbon Royal school for engineering, &c.; and the military school at Luz, near the capital. At Lisbon there is also a royal college for nobles, and royal schools for the Arabic language, drawing architecture and statuary; an institution for instruction in copper-plate engraving; an academy for music, and some others. Surgery is taught at the university of Coimbra, and in several royal schools; at St. Joseph's Hospital at Lisbon, and in Hospitals at Oporto, Elvas and

**Chavas.** There are also several academies for instruction in science, geography, Portuguese history, marine affairs, navigation, artillery, and fortifications; an institution for the encouragement of science and literature at Lisbon; an academy for history and antiquities at Santarem, and an academy for scientific instruction at Thomar. There are seven botanic gardens, twelve museums of natural curiosities open to the public; twelve collections of coins and other antiquities, eight observatories, a royal library at Lisbon, with 80,000 volumes, and the university library at Coimbra, with 60,000 volumes. Such are the means of educating 3,600,000 people! and even of these, little more than the 863 elementary schools are available to the masses! We have no statement of the mode of instruction adopted, or whether teaching is done by priests or laymen; the probability, however, is that the whole, as in all Roman Catholic countries, is entrusted to the former, and it is as probable that the chief efforts of these spiritual shepherds are directed rather to manufacture good Catholics than efficient scholars.

The Portuguese were formerly, without exception, ignorant and bigotted Roman Catholics, addicted to superstition and intolerance, and for many ages the whole nation well deserved the appellation bestowed upon their king, of his "Most Faithful Majesty." Other religions are now tolerated, but it is believed that as yet no Portuguese has swerved from the ancient faith. The Patriarch of Lisbon is supreme head of the clergy, besides whom there are two archbishops, those of Braga and Evora, and 14 bishops. In 1822 there were 132 nunneries, with 2,980 nuns, and 346 monasteries, with 5,830 monks, besides servants, pupils and novices. But infidelity has now usurped the place of ignorance and blind devotion, by which the Portuguese were especially characterized, and by the constitution no male religious houses are permitted; the regular clergy have been abolished; the monks and friars have been driven from their princely mansions to live on a small allowance, and their estates and revenues have been confiscated to the crown. The secular clergy, the only class now allowed, never had much influence over the people, and even the little they had is now almost gone. Still, Portugal is Catholic; and, blinded by ignorance and superstition, will long remain without material social improvement.

The Spanish insurrection, which broke out in 1820, was immediately followed by a similar outbreak in Portugal, and an extraordinary Cortes assembled and proclaimed a constitution like that which Spain promulgated in 1812—but if anything rather more democratic, for it admitted only one chamber, elected by universal suffrage, and invested it with the whole legislative and a great part of the executive powers. The sovereign retained the *veto*, but a subsequent passage of any act confirmed it law in spite of the royal disapproval. The Cortes was also its own master as far as prorogation or dissolution was concerned. This constitution was overturned by Don Miguel, three years after, and in May, 1823, Don John VI. protested against all that had been enacted under its sanction. After the death of John, in 1826, Don Pedro, Emperor of Brazil, abdicated the Portuguese crown in favor of his daughter Donna Maria da Gloria, and gave to the Portuguese a charter which re-established the ancient Cortes. According to this act the legislative power is vested in the sovereign and the chamber of deputies, elected for periods of four years through provincial electoral colleges, chosen primarily by the people. Don Miguel, who had been entrusted with the regency during the minority of the queen, usurped the throne and declared himself king in 1828; but in 1833 Don Pedro, who had then resigned the throne of

Brazil, had recovered that of Portugal for his daughter, and restored the charter of 1826. This, however, lasted only till 1836, when the garrison and national guard of Lisbon proclaimed the constitution of 1820, which the queen was compelled to accept with such alterations as the Cortes might thereafter make. Portugal is thus, *in writing*, a very limited monarchy, or to speak more correctly, a democratic representative republic, with an hereditary chief magistrate exercising the functions of royalty only by and with the advice and consent of a responsible ministry.

Productive industry in Portugal is yet in its very infancy. Few of the improvements which other nations have introduced into agriculture have been adopted by the Portuguese, and with few limited sections, the kingdom remains a comparative wilderness. Cultivation, however, is now improving, and hemp and flax are raised of excellent quality. The cereal crops are generally good, but sufficient is not grown to supply the consumption. Wine is produced in great abundance, chiefly in the northern provinces. The annual average quantity is estimated at 80,000 pipes of red and 60,000 pipes of white wine. Olives and a variety of fruits are produced, and oil forms an important article for both home use and foreign consumption.

Both the Carthaginians and Romans worked the mines of Spain, and gold and silver to some amount appears to have been extracted. Lead mines have long been wrought, and the mines of Plumbago, near Mogadouro, and the iron mines near Figueira and Torre de Moncorvo, supply considerable mineral. Red oxide of iron occurs in Estremadura and Beira. Iron, indeed, is one of the most abundant minerals in Portugal. Copper occurs near Oporto, and at Couna there is a deposit of cinnabar. Bismuth, antimony and arsenic are found in different places, and the sands of some of the rivers contain gold. There is now only one gold mine, that of Adissa, the annual production of which, however, is not more than twenty pounds weight. The coal mines of Figueira and Oporto are the richest in the kingdom, and are of great advantage to the neighboring towns. Marbles of great beauty are also plentiful, but the state of internal communication makes it too expensive to give encouragement to their being wrought. Precious stones are also found. Valuable building stone is everywhere, and immense beds of pyrites and marcasites, potter's and common clay, and salt pits, are met with. With all these materials, mining does not occupy more than a few hundred persons, and is little accounted of as a source of wealth to the nation.

The fisheries are neglected in a similar manner, the capabilities of which, if brought into operation, would render the importation of fish, an item of no mean account in an economical point of view, quite unnecessary.

Though generally underrated as a manufacturing nation, the Portuguese have really no important manufactories. Cottons, woollens and linens are made at different places, but the best goods are their cambrics, sheeting and table linens, and sewing threads. Glass, silk, paper, &c., enter into their manufactures, and in the workshops of Lisbon every description of articles is more or less fabricated. The Portuguese are very skilful in gold and silver work, and the taste they display in cabinet work is not mean. Generally speaking, they manufacture most articles of ordinary necessity with more or less skill.

Since the separation of Portugal and Brazil, the commerce of the country has been reduced to a mere fraction of its former amount. Political events have also materially contributed to depress its commerce. The chief articles

of export are wines, fruits, oil, and cork and other woods; and the imports consist of grain and salted provisions, live stock, dyes and drugs, with the metals, timber, tar, pitch, flax, hemp, silk, &c. The internal trade of the country, which is at the best of times of little importance, suffers much from the want of good roads. Canals are unknown, and the rivers are almost unnavigable from obstruction—circumstances that will continue to act prejudicially to the development of the national resources of the country, for there is no probability of any alteration being effected.

In 1823, Portugal, with the Azores and Madeira, was divided by a law of the Cortes into twelve provinces, containing 26 *comarcas* or counties, and each subdivided into several *julgados* or cantons, but subsequent troubles have prevented this arrangement of being carried into effect. The six great provinces, whose names appear on the maps, are not administrative, ecclesiastical or military, but simply geographical or popular divisions, and it is as such only that we give them here with their principal towns, as stated in the following table:

PROVINCES.	Area in sq. m.	Chief Towns.	Pop.
ESTREMADURA.....	8,834.....	Lisbon.....	260,000
ALENTEJO.....	10,255.....	Evora.....	100,000
BEIRA.....	8,586.....	Coimbra.....	15,000
MINHO.....	2,671.....	Oporto.....	14,000
TRAS-OS-MONTES.....	4,065.....	Villa Real.....	4,600
ALGARVE.....	2,099.....	Faro.....	3,400

LISBON, the capital of the kingdom, is a large, straggling city, built on several hills and their interjacent valleys, on the right bank of the estuary of the Tagus. The city was almost destroyed by an earthquake in 1775, and has been re-built on a modern plan, the streets running at right angles. The *Praço do Rocio*, and the *Praço do Commercio* are two large, handsome squares, the latter having its south side open to the river, and the others occupied by several magnificent public buildings, with a bronze equestrian statue of Joseph I. in the centre. The *Praço do Rocio* contains the palace and prisons of the Inquisition, now used as offices of the ministry, and a great number of stores and coffee-houses. The older part of the city, that which escaped demolition in 1775, consists of narrow, winding, dirty streets. The public buildings are, in general, common-place, and of the 246 churches only three are deserving of notice: the cathedral or basilica of Santa Maria, San Roque, and the church of the *Coração de Jesus*, noted for the boldness of its dome. There are three royal palaces, the *Ajuda*, one of the largest of Europe; the *Bemposta*, only used for public audiences, and that of *Necessidades*, where foreign princes are lodged. The residences of the nobility are also splendid; and some of the more wealthy merchants have houses, which in appearance rival those of the higher orders, but the habitations of the poor are most miserable and very filthy. Lisbon has all the usual accommodations in respect of scientific and literary institutions, and a large number of charitable foundations, among which is a hospital free to the invalids of all countries. The climate is remarkably healthy, and Lisbon is the resort of consumptives from more northern latitudes. The markets are profusely supplied, but the consumption of animal food is unusually small. The city is well supplied with water by the aqueduct of Bemfica, or *Agoas-livres*, upwards of 17 miles in length, and which was completed in 1732, after 19 years' labor. The water, which is brought from Montelavar, is strongly impregnated with carbonate of lime, and is thought to be beneficial to invalids. Within Lisbon a variety of manufactures are maintained.



Fine cloths, some linens, and a considerable quantity of silk goods, are produced. The jewelry, and gold and silver work, is excellent. The foreign trade is large and second to no city of Europe, except London, but of its nature, amount, or value, we have no authentic accounts. Most of the imported articles are re-shipped to the Portuguese colonies, and consequently Portugal must be looked upon rather as an entre-pôt than as a true commercial country.

The Tagus above the city expands into an estuary and forms a most secure and capacious harbor, capable of containing 10,000 sail without danger, but for a space of five miles below contracts its breadth to less than a mile, and the bar at the entrance is dangerous to pass without the aid of a skilful pilot. Between the bar and the city the fort of St. Julian, and the strong castle of Belem, in the river, under the guns of which all vessels must pass, form its principal military defences. The panorama of the harbor is one of the finest objects the eye can survey. The smooth expanse of the water, studded with ships, the vineyards on the surrounding hills, and the city with its hundreds of towers extending two miles along the shore, afford a view that can scarcely be equalled.

In the vicinity of Lisbon there are several places worthy of notice. On the banks of the Tagus, five miles south-west from the centre of the city, is the magnificent church and monastery of Belem, built by King Emanuel in 1499, on the spot whence Vasco de Gama embarked for India. It is a noble Gothic building, and contains the tombs of many members of the royal family. Cintra, 15 miles N. by W. of Lisbon, is celebrated for the convention made there in 1808, by which the French, under Junot, were allowed to evacuate Portugal; and the splendid cathedral of Mofra, and its equally splendid royal palace, are attractive to the tourist.

EVORA, the capital of Alemtejo, is noted for its Roman antiquities, among which is a noble aqueduct, and a temple dedicated to Diana. Population, 9,000. COIMBRA, in Beira, lies on the right bank of the Mondego, built partly on the western slope of a steep rocky hill, and partly on a plain contiguous to the river. This city contains the only university in the kingdom, and is the seat of the general directory of public instruction, and of a considerable inland trade. Population, 15,000. FIGUEIRA is a sea-port at the mouth of the river, and enjoys some trade, and LAMEGO, about five miles from the left bank of the Douro, is memorable as being the place where the Cortes assembled in 1144 to establish the constitution of the kingdom. AVIERO, OVAR, &c., are sea-ports in Beira, and VISEU or Viseo is noted for its great annual fair for jewelry and plate, cloth, and cattle. ALMEIDA, a town near the frontier, 24 miles N. by W. of Ciudad Rodrigo, in Spain, has always been deemed a military fort of the greatest importance.

OPORTO lies on the right bank of the Douro, three miles from its mouth. It is a large episcopal city and sea-port town situated on the slopes of two hills. The town is very irregular and straggling, but is considered as the second city in the kingdom, both in industry and commerce. The principal trade consists in wines, both red and white, which are exported to the amount of 50,000 to 70,000 pipes per annum. It has also several manufactures, and ship-building is engaged in to some extent. The river affords a tolerably good harbor, and is lined by a quay along the whole length of the town. Its mouth is obstructed by rocks and quicksands which render the entrance difficult, but the water is very deep in front of the town. Oporto has four suburbs, 11 campos or squares, 14 hospitals and asylums, 90 churches, besides a fine and spacious cathedral, rebuilt by Henriquez, first

count of Portugal, A. D. 1105, and 17 monasteries now uninhabited. On the south of the river, which is crossed by a bridge of boats, is the Villa-Nova de Gaya, chiefly inhabited by wine-coopers, and containing the immense vaults or lodges where the wine is kept until it is stored. On a rocky eminence above Villa-Nova is the vast convent and garden of Serra Cruzios, near which the British army crossed the Douro in 1809. The city, including Villa-Nova and all its suburbs, contains between 70,000 and 80,000 inhabitants.

BRAGA is only celebrated for its antiquities. GUIMARAENS is noted for its cutlery, linen, &c.; CALDAS DO GERES, for its mineral baths; and VIANA, a seaport town at the mouth of the Lima, has a flourishing trade, and engages largely in the fishing business.

VILLA REAL is a large, busy, commercial town, and the capital of Trassos-Montes. PESO DA REGOA, near the right bank of the Douro, and south of Villa Real, is noted for its annual wine fair, in February, where business to the amount of about \$7,000,000 is transacted. BRAGANÇA is noted for its silk manufactures, and gives the ducal title, and is a sort of family name to the present royal family. CHAVES, near the northern frontier, has been celebrated for its mineral springs since the time of the Romans, and has a bridge built by them.

FARO, with 8,000, and TAVIRA, with 9,000 inhabitants, both in Algarve, are chiefly employed in the fisheries. SAGRES is a small fortified town near Cape St. Vincent. It was here that the infant Don Henriquez, Duke of Visieu, resided for many years, to prosecute those voyages along the coasts of Africa, which have rendered his name illustrious, as the father of modern maritime discovery.

The foreign possessions of Portugal consist of—1st. The Azores; 2d. Madeira and Porto Santo; 3d. The Cape de Verde Islands, on the western coast of Africa; 4th. Angola, Mozambique, and other territories in Southern Africa; and 5th. Goa, Diu, and other settlements, in the East Indies.

#### THE AZORES, OR WESTERN ISLANDS.

THIS remarkable group is situated in the Atlantic Ocean, between 37° and 39° north latitude, and 25° and 31° west longitude. It comprises nine separate islands, named, respectively, Santo Miguel, Terceira, Pico, Fayal, Santo Jorje, Graciosa, Santa Maria, Flores, and Corvo, all of volcanic formation, of a rugged, rocky surface, and producing abundance of wine and fruit. SAN MIGUEL, 50 miles long, and from 6 to 10 miles broad, rises in many parts precipitously from the water, but in other parts its rise is very gradual. The more level parts are studded with hundreds of small hills, many of which are perfect cones, while others are truncated, or terminate in crater-shaped tops. The lower parts of the island only are cultivated, and houses and villages are scattered along the coast, intermingled with vineyards and orange gardens; the latter, a fruit for which the island is widely-celebrated. Ponta Delgada, on the south, is the principal town, and has a population of 16,000. Its harbor is bad, but yet the best of the island. It contains an English church and burial-ground. RIBEIRA-GRANDE, on the north side, is also a flourishing town of 12,000 inhabitants. In 1811, a volcanic island rose from the sea, off the west end of Santo Miguel, but disappeared four months after. TERCEIRA is a large, compact island, to the west of San Miguel, and contains the capital of the Azores, Angra, an episcopal city of 13,000 inhabitants. FAYAL contains the town

of Horta, which possesses the best harbor in the group, and the most frequented after Angra and Ponta Delgada. Population, 10,000. In Pico is the small town of Lagens, noted for its excellent wine. In its vicinity rises the great "Pico," or snow-capped volcanic cone, to the height of 9,000 feet above the level of the sea. The other islands have nothing worthy of notice. The total population is upwards of 200,000; thus distributed:—Santo Miguel, 80,000; Terceira, 40,000; Pico, 24,000; Fayal, 22,000; Flores, 14,000; Santo Jorje, 10,000; Graciosa, 7,800; Santa Maria, 5,000; and Corvo, 7,000. These islands are often sought by ships in distress.

#### MADEIRA AND PORTO SANTO.

MADEIRA, off the northern coast of Africa, lies in latitude  $32^{\circ} 30'$  north, and longitude  $17^{\circ}$  west. It is 35 miles in length, and 10 or 12 broad. Abruptly rising from the Atlantic, it forms a huge mountain mass, interspersed with numerous chasms and precipices, many of which are frightful and inaccessible. Rivulets meander in every direction, and cascades leap from rock to rock, through bushes of rosemary, laurel, and myrtle. Groves of pines and chesnuts stretch along the declivities; the large leaves of the banana wave over the water, and the splendid palm-tree overtops the houses. Coffee trees form hedges and copses, while mimosas and a variety of the most gorgeous palms rise into tall and stately trees, displaying their far glittering blossoms in the most delightful of climates. The uniformity of the temperature is remarkable, seldom ranging to greater extremes than  $57^{\circ}$  in winter, and  $76^{\circ}$  in summer; the usual mean being  $66^{\circ}$  Fahr. But every variety of climate can be enjoyed, with corresponding changes in scene and vegetation, on the acclivities of the Pico Ruivo, which shoots its snowy crown 6,165 feet above the sea level. Madeira has long been the resort of invalids, and especially of consumptive patients. The best season for them is from November to the middle of June. In July, August, and September, the heat is sometimes excessive, and the influence of the scirocco has been known to raise the temperature to  $130^{\circ}$ , a heat sufficient to melt wax. The winters, too, are sometimes stormy and uncomfortable. The geological structure of the island is also an impassable obstacle to the making of good roads, so that the invalid cannot have the benefit of riding. Funchal, the capital, is a large town of 25,000 inhabitants, on the south side. The whole population is about 120,000.

PORTO SANTO consists of tertiary sand-stone and lime-stone, alternating with volcanic strata. It is a small island, 35 miles north-east of Madeira.

The DEZERTAS lie to the south east-of Madeira, and consist of only some small rocky islets.

Portugal, anciently called LUSITANIA, was taken by the Romans 200 before Christ, previous to which some Phœnician and Carthaginian colonies are supposed to have been planted on its shores. It remained a Roman province to the 5th century, when it was invaded by the Suevi, Visigoths, &c.

The Moors, in the early part of the 8th century, overran the country, but the natives soon drove them from the northern and mountainous portions. About this period the name of Lusitania seems to have been changed to that of Portucale, subsequently changed into Portugal from the circumstance of Oporto, the principal of the Christian strongholds, being then called Calle or Porto Calle. In the 11th century Portugal became an earldom under the kingdom of Castille and Leon, and during the 12th was erected into an independent kingdom. Its power now rapidly increased, and by the acqui-

sition of Algarve in 1249, it arrived at its present limits. The discoveries which Portugal commenced in the latter part of the 14th century have shed immortal lustre on the Portuguese name. During the 15th century, Madeira, the Canaries and the Azores were discovered and colonized, and in 1498 Vasco de Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and thus opened a new route to India.

In the following century the Portuguese discovered and took possession of Brazil; made immense acquisitions in India and the Persian Gulf, and discovered the Moluccas, by which successful enterprises they monopolized the commerce of the east and a great part of that of the west. But the prosperity of Portugal was short lived. After the disastrous defeat and death of King Sebastian in Africa, in 1598, Philip II. of Spain seized on the kingdom, and retained it as a Spanish province from 1580 to 1640, and when she regained her independence, the greater part of her commerce and of her foreign possessions were in the hands of the Dutch. Regaining most of these, however, her glory was reviving, but the revolution which commenced in France invaded the Portuguese territories, and the whole fabric of her institutions was changed. Brazil was lost to her, and the remaining colonies she still possesses are but the shadow of her once extensive empire. Portugal is virtually under British protection.

## THE CONFEDERATION OF SWITZERLAND.

THIS country lies between the latitudes  $45^{\circ} 50'$  and  $47^{\circ} 49'$  north, and between the longitudes of  $6^{\circ}$  and  $10^{\circ} 35'$  east, being bounded on the west by the French Republic; on the north by Baden and Wurtemberg; on the east by the Tyrol; and on the south by Austrian and Sardinian Lombardy and the Duchy of Savoy. Its extreme length, from Vattay, in the Canton of Vaud, to Martinsbruck, in the Grisons, is about 208 miles; and its greatest breadth, from Chiasso, in Tessin, to the northern extremity of Schaffhausen, is 156 miles. The superficial area is estimated at 17,208 square miles.

Switzerland is a very high and rugged country, traversed by ramifications from the Alps and Jura mountains. The centre of the Alpine system is Mount St. Gothard. From this point two ranges are given off to the south-west, forming the valley of the Vallais, watered by the Upper Rhone. Another range extends eastward through the Grisons, and forms the watershed between the Upper Rhine and the Swiss affluents of the Po. From these main ranges branches diverge, covering about two-thirds of the country, and forming numerous vallies, drained by an equal number of mountain torrents, all of which are ultimately precipitated either into the Rhine, the Rhone, the Po, or the Danube. The chain of the Jura is entirely separated from the Alps by the Lake of Geneva, the valley of the Rhone, and a long, narrow plain, which stretches eastward for nearly 180 miles, between the lakes of Constance and Geneva, but separated from both by ranges of hills and highlands. The width of this plain nowhere exceeds 20 miles, and its elevation varies from 1,200 to 1,350 feet above the sea-level.

The immense masses of these mountain regions exhibit a perfect chaos, and present on all sides inaccessible rocks and everlasting snows. The in-

tervening valleys, however, contain extensive districts, fertile and beautiful, and forming a singular contrast with the mountains that overshadow, and seem ready to overwhelm them. The gradations of animal and vegetable life are singularly marked at different elevations; and the vine, the oak, the beech, the fir, rapidly succeed each other until, from the limits of perpetual snow, animal and vegetable life becomes gradually more and more dwarfish, and at length gives way beneath the blight of inhospitable regions which penetrate the skies. The higher Alps commence at 6,500 feet elevation, and the reign of winter is here perpetual. At 8,000 feet is the region of "glaciers," or gletschers. These remarkable objects are formed exclusively in the highest valleys, where the sun never penetrates. A "glacier," as defined by M. Agassiz, is a mass of ice hanging on the sides of an alpine ridge, or enclosed in one of its valleys, and which is moving continually down its declivity, impelled by their own gravity. The surface and figure of these is determined by the nature of the locality on which they rest. Their extent is also ever varying, and in general decrease as they approach the lower valleys. Their margins are bounded by dykes of roundish blocks of stone, called *moraines*, which are continually pushed forward or abandoned by the glaciers, as these advance or retire. From Mont Blanc to the frontier of the Tyrol 400 glaciers are counted, varying in size from three to 18 or 20 miles in length, and from half to 2½ miles wide, and from 100 to 600 feet thick. Altogether, the glaciers of Switzerland compose a sea of ice more than 1,000 square miles in extent, and it is from these inexhaustible sources that the principal rivers of Europe are supplied with water. It is probable, from the geological deductions, that these glaciers once occupied the great valleys of the Rhone and the Aar, and the Lake of Geneva, to the height of many hundreds of feet above their present level.

Every species of rock is contained in the Alps. The primitive rocks are found in deeper ranges and valleys. Resting upon these, and frequently at a great height, transition rocks appear. The secondary rocks, or those of the tertiary class, though frequently found at a great height, yet generally underlie the primitive and transition series. In the strata of the tertiary formations organic remains are more or less abundant. The overlying vegetable soil of the valleys varies from a few inches to several feet in depth. The whole geological structure, however, is anomalous, and the secondary and tertiary are confusedly mingled with trap and the old volcanic rocks; and diluvial and alluvial deposits, with the new igneous or volcanic.

The accumulated snows often fall from the tops of the mountains, and in their course down their steep slopes frequently occasion very serious injury. These falls, called "avalanches or lavanges," carry along with them fragments of rocks, with trees, and other objects, which may lie in their downward track, and rapidly increasing in size, sometimes overwhelm villages and sweep down extensive forests. Still more serious are the "land-slips," which fall like avalanches from the sides of the mountains, but consist of masses of earth torn from their beds by the expansive force of freezing. The ruin and desolation caused is sometimes terrific. One of the most disastrous of these took place in 1806, when Goldau, and several other villages in the valley of Arth, were overwhelmed by the fall of the earth and stones from the Rossberg.

Unlike the Alps, the chain of Jura is clothed from base to summit with luxuriant pine forests. It stretches about 240 miles along the western and

north-western frontier, from the Rhone to the Rhine. Precipitous and abrupt towards Switzerland, the ridges of the Jura become gradually subsident on the side of France. They are principally formed of calcareous rock, in some places mixed with marble, and contain prodigious deposits of marine remains. No part of them rises to the limit of perpetual snow.

Switzerland is pre-eminently a country of lakes. That of **CONSTANCE**, in the north-east, is formed by the Rhine, and divided into two equal parts, the upper lake, or the "Ober-see," being 40 miles long, varying from one and a half to 20 wide; while the lower lake, called **Zeller-see**, is only 10 to 14 miles long, and very irregular in breadth. Their elevation is 1,305 feet above the ocean, and their greatest ascertained depth is 1,334 feet. The superficial area is 290 square miles. In picturesque beauty the Lake of Constance is only excelled by that of Geneva—its banks are covered with castles, smiling towns and villages, in the midst of orchards and vineyards. Several islands stud these beautiful expanses, and convert the locality into a perfect paradise. The **LAC LEMAN**, or **LAKE OF GENEVA**, in the south-west, formed by the Rhone, measures in its greatest length 40 miles, varying from a few hundred feet wide at Geneva, to 9 or 10 miles to the westward of Lausanne. It has an area of 336 square miles; its depth is more than 996 feet; its medium depth 560 feet, and its surface between 1,100 and 1,200 feet above the level of the sea. The water sometimes rises suddenly to the height of 5 or 6 feet—a phenomenon called by the people *seiches*. The Rhone flows in three branches into the upper end of the lake, which receives besides the waters of 41 streams. This is considered the finest lake in the south of Europe. On the north-east, east, and south-east, it is surrounded by high and rugged mountains, but the north-western shore is bounded by lower hills and more gradual slopes, which form a most beautiful country of corn-fields and vineyards. Ice is seldom formed more than to the extent of a few feet from the shore. Next to these the **LAKE OF NEUFCHATEL** is the largest, being 25 miles long, and six in its greatest breadth. Elevation above the sea, 1,437 feet. The **LAKE OF LUCERNE** and **ZURICH** are each about 23 miles long, but very narrow. The former is 1,320, and the latter 1,279 feet above the sea-level, and the depth of both about 600 feet. The other lakes are all of smaller dimensions, but some of them are not inferior in picturesque beauty to those that have been described. These are the Lake of Lugano and Lago Maggiore, in Tessin; the lakes of Morat, Sempach, Zug, Lowerz, Halwyll, Baldegg, Sarneu, Lungern, Egeri, Greiffen, and Pfaffikon; the Lac-de-Joux, in Jura; the Beiler-see; the Lake of Thun; and a number of others.

Several of the great rivers of Europe have their rise and pursue part of their courses within the Swiss limits. The **RHINE** (Rhein) is formed in the Grisons by the union of the Vorder, Mittler and Hinter Rhein, (Fore, Middle, and Back Rhine,) three separate streams issuing from the south and west. The first issues near St. Gothard, from a small lake and a stream from the glacier of Mont Badus, and, receiving many torrents in its descent, traverses the Tavetsch, and at Disentis joins the middle branch, which comes from the Lake of Dim, in the Val Cadelina. The Hinter Rhine rises from the Vogelsberg, and flows rapidly through the Rheinwald and Schamserthal, and joins the Vorder Rhein near Reichenau. Below the confluence the united streams are navigable for heavy rafts. Hence it flows northward, receiving from both sides several streams, and enters the Lake of Constance below Rheineck. Leaving the Lake, the river flows through

a deep limestone cut, from 700 to 900 feet high, and below Schaffhausen the navigation is interrupted by the Rhinefell, a magnificent cataract, where the river, after boiling over a rocky channel in a succession of rapids, bursts at last in three distinct branches over a precipice upwards of 80 feet high. Below this point it flows westward in a rocky channel, dividing the ranges of Jura from those of the Black Forest, to Basle, where it turns abruptly north, and leaves Switzerland, whence it flows north and north-westwardly through Germany and Holland, and falls into the German Ocean. The principal affluents below the falls are,—the Thur, with its tributary the Sitter; the Aar, the outlet of Lakes Neufchatel and Bienne, and recipient of the Saane and a number of other streams; and the Birse. The RHONE (Rhodan) rises from the base of Mont Furca, in the Valais, and runs through the middle of that canton into the Lake of Geneva, which it enters by three branches, which, in the course of ages, have formed a considerable delta. Its principal affluents are,—the Visp, the Borgne, and the Dranse, all on the left. Half a mile below Geneva the Under Rhone is joined by the Arne from Vavoy, and near Belgrade, within the French frontier, it passes underground for about a quarter of a mile, and before reaching Lyons it cuts through all the ranges of the Jura. Hence it flows south, emptying itself into the Gulf of Lyons, by a wide delta of many mouths. The TESSIN rises near St. Gothard, and falls into the Lago Maggiore, which receives, besides, many other streams from the Alps. The TRESA falls into the Lake of Lugano. The INN, a tributary of the Danube, rises in the glaciers of Maloya, in the Grisons, and passes from Switzerland in a north-east direction.

The inhabitants of Switzerland belong to two principal stocks; the Germanic, and the Græco-Latin. The former comprises the Deutsch or German Swiss, who inhabit Zurich, Lucerne, Uri, Schweiz, Unterwalden, Glarus, Zug, Appenzell, St. Gall, Thurgau, Schaffhausen, and Aargau; the greater part of Berne and Basle; a considerable part of Soleure, Fribourg, and Valais; some communes of Vaud, and the communes of Bosco in the canton of Tessin; and form about seven-tenths of the total population. The Græco-Latin stock comprises the French, the Roman, and the Italian Swiss. The French occupy Neufchatel, Geneva, and Vaud, part of Soleure, Fribourg, and Valais, and the Jura portion of Basle and Berne. They form about one-fifth of the whole. The Romans or Rhætians are found only in the Grisons, in the Oberland, and in the Engadine. They speak a language which they call the Ladin, and which is more near the Latin than either the French or Italian; and seem to be a distinct people, supposed to have originally emigrated from the Rhetian Hills. The Italians inhabit Tessin, some valleys of the Grisons, and some places in Valais. A few Jews live in Aargau, and various foreigners are located in and about Geneva. The Deutsch is the language used in the general affairs of the Confederation, and in those of all the Cantons except Tessin, Vaud, Neufchatel, and Geneva. The Swiss Deutsch, however, contains no less than 35 dialects, while the French has 15, and the Italian and Roman each two dialects, so that there are no fewer than 54 distinct dialects spoken in different parts of Switzerland.

The Swiss are divided in their religious economy between Calvinism and Popery; and as a general remark it may be stated, that nearly all the Germans profess the Protestant, and the French, Italians, and Romans the Roman Catholic religion. The relative numbers are about 1,300,000 Pro-

testants, and 850,000 Catholics. There are, besides, some Anabaptists, and about 2,000 Jews. The latter enjoy no political rights. This mixture of races and religions proves anything but a source of harmony among the Swiss. The Catholics are bigotted, and the Protestants retaliate. Neither allows the other to become citizens of their respective cantons. In some of the cantons Catholicism is peremptory, and all children must be brought up to that faith. There are four Roman Catholic dioceses: Chur and St. Gall, Basle, Lausanne, and Sion; the bishops of which are suffragans of the archbishop of Milan. The Catholic clergy number about 6,000, and are much more numerous than the Protestant. The Protestant church is Presbyterian in form, and its government is considered a branch of the department of public instruction, and, as such, belongs to the magistrates of the different cantons. Several disturbances have occurred between the rival churches, and much blood flowed on both sides. In 1847 civil war was the result, but the Protestants prevailed, and expelled the Jesuits and all monastic orders from the Confederation.

The Swiss are the best educated people in Europe. Every parent is obliged by law to give his children some education from the age of five to eight, but it seldom requires compulsion, as no one is eligible to citizenship, or can receive a public appointment, except possessed of a certain degree of education. In every district there are primary schools for children, and secondary schools for youths between 12 and 15, in which a good general course is taught. In both these schools the rich and the poor are educated together, the latter gratuitously. There are also normal schools in several of the cantons for the instruction of those intended for teachers. Sunday schools exist in several of the cantons, and the Lancasterian system has been introduced in Geneva and Vaud. There are superior gymnasia in all the large towns. Basle has a university, as also Berne and Zurich. The first has long been renowned among the great schools of Europe. In the principal towns there are good libraries and literary institutions, and between 50 and 60 newspapers, besides magazines, are published in Switzerland.

This early training of the juvenile part of the population results in much good to the morals of the nation, but the physical education they receive is perhaps equally advantageous. The young are brought up to habits of industry and economy, and an air of well-being, neatness and sense of propriety is imprinted on the people, their dwellings and their plots of land. None of the women are exempt from field-work, not even in families of very substantial proprietors. All work as well as the poorest male retainer.

There are few physical differences in the inhabitants of the different parts of the country, except that the natives of the mountains are more muscular and active. The Swiss are unquestionably a brave people, devoted to their home and freedom. The situation in which they are placed, hemmed in as it were from other nations and the great deep, their scanty means of subsistence, the necessity of husbanding their resources, and the difficulty of increasing them, have made them sober, industrious and economical; but also, we must say, mean and mercenary. There is nothing they will not undertake, however degrading, provided they think they can make money out of it. To obtain the rank of valet in the family of some foreign nobleman seems the summit of their ambition. Though attached to liberty themselves, a few shillings a day will make them flock to the standard of their most inveterate enemies. In this respect indeed they have no predilections,



and the Emperor of Russia and the President of the United States may equally command their services.

“Man and steel, the soldier and his sword”

continue to be the most marketable of Swiss products. Though attached to their country they have no relish for its magnificent natural beauties; and though an honest, prudent, and on the whole respectable people, they have little that is amiable or attractive in their character.

Before 1798, Switzerland formed a confederation composed of three very distinct parts:—thirteen cantons, the subjects and vassals of these cantons and their allies. The thirteen cantons formed fifteen republics, of which eight were democratic, four aristocratic, and three oligarchical. The subjects and vassals of the thirteen cantons were possessed in common by the several cantons, and the allies were countries associated with the Confederation and under its protection. At this period, however, the constitution was changed, and again in 1803 Switzerland was formed into a confederation of 19 cantons, which, on the downfall of Napoleon, was supplanted by the present federal system. By the federal acts of 5th August, 1815, twenty-two cantons were confederated for the mutual protection of their liberty and independence. The Diet, which directs the general affairs of the country, is composed of deputies from the cantons, who give their votes under instruction, each canton having one vote. In this legislature is vested the power of making treaties, but the separate cantons may treat with foreign powers in military matters, and for purposes of economy and police, but these treaties must respect the federal pact and the rights of other cantons. The Diet appoints and recalls diplomatic agents, oversees the general safety, and regulates the military affairs of the federal army. When the Diet is not sitting, the direction of affairs is vested in the cantons of Zurich, Bern and Lucerne, each retaining the right for two years by turns, commencing 15th January, 1815. The internal affairs of each separate canton are managed by independent local governments, much in the same way as in the United States. In 1830, and at several subsequent periods, the political status of the country was much altered, and it is probable that at the present time material changes are anticipated, all tending more and more to democracy. Indeed, at the present day, many of the cantons, which were but lately of an aristocratic complexion, are now thoroughly democratic.

The federal revenue is entirely distinct from that of the respective cantons, and is set apart to defray the general expenses, and for the maintenance of the confederate army and public instruction. This revenue is derived from interest accruing from certain capitals set aside for the purpose. For extraordinary expenses, each canton furnishes a contingent proportioned to its means. The sum total has been fixed since 1818, at 539,275 Swiss francs, or about \$149,000.

No standing army is maintained, but there are troops in the pay of the several cantons. Each canton, however, must have its contingent to the federal army always ready to march. The number of men fixed by law is 33,758, besides the general staff, and an equal number forms the contingents of reserve. A general levy might turn out 200,000 men able to bear arms. The infantry is composed of 429 companies, and organized into 59 battalions of 6 companies each, and 15 of 5 each. Swiss troops are still maintained in Holland, Spain, the Two Sicilies, and in the Papal States, and were

formerly so in France. There are no federal fortresses. By the treaty of Paris, of 20th November, 1815, the European sovereigns recognized the perpetual neutrality of Switzerland.

The Swiss possess a great many arts and manufactures, but they are very irregularly distributed. The cantons of the west and north are the most industrious. The watches and jewelry of Geneva and other cities; the stuffs and ribbons of Basle, Zurich, Geneva, &c.; the fine linens and canvass of Aargau; the linen and hempen thread of Lucerne; the stained paper of Basle, Berne, &c.; are all examples of the excellence of the Swiss in manufacturing industry. In most parts, however, manufacture of articles for sale is little practised; but domestic manufactures, especially of linen from the flax they grow, and of coarse cloth from the fleeces of their sheep, is almost universal among the people, particularly those of the mountains, who also dye their cloth, and often display great skill and ingenuity in the process.

The topography of the country is disadvantageous to the agriculturist; agriculture nevertheless is in a flourishing condition. The natural obstacles and disappointment they meet with only stimulate their energy and skill. Their knowledge of soils seems to be intuitive, and the management they display in the cultivation of their farms is admirable. The very precipices bear the marks of the plow. The Swiss particularly excel in the culture of natural and artificial meadows. Cattle feeding is one of the principal employments of the farmers. Their numerous and fertile pasturages feed those fine cows which furnish the excellent cheese so eagerly purchased by all Europe. Cows, goats and sheep constitute the general wealth of the Swiss farmer. The mountain pastures are generally rented in summer, either by the proprietors of cows hiring the pasture, or by the proprietors of the pasture hiring the cows, which at the beginning of winter are returned to their owners. The cattle are attended on the mountains by herdsmen, who live in "Chalets" or huts of the rudest construction.

Notwithstanding the great obstacles presented by the nature of the country, and the conflicting regulations of so many sovereign states, the differences of languages, dialects and religion, commerce may be said to flourish. Since the beginning of the present century magnificent roads have much lessened the difficulties of travelling, and facilitated communication with Italy and the Tyrol; and steamboats have been established on the principal lakes. The agricultural produce forms the staple exports. Some of the finer manufactures, especially watches and jewelry, wood work, cloths, silks and linens, ribbands and laces, with leather, paper and gunpowder, are also exported to a considerable amount. The imports consist of corn and rice, salt and dried fish, wine, brandy, and dried fruit of southern countries, tobacco and West India produce, various manufactured articles, &c. The transit trade is very important. Basle and Geneva are entrepôts of the foreign trade.

The names of the cantons and the principal elements of their statistics are given below:

CANTONS.	Area in square miles.	Population.	Contingent to.		CHIEF TOWNS.
			Federal Treasury	Federal Army.	
			Francs.		
Zurich.....	517	231,576	74,000	3,700	Zurich,
Berne.....	1,933	400,000	104,080	5,824	Berne,
Lucerne.....	443	124,521	26,000	1,734	Lucerne,
Schweiz.....	256	13,519	3,010	602	Schweiz,
Uri.....	318	40,650	1,180	236	Altorf,
Upper Unterwalden.....	} 198 {	12,368	1,105	211	Sarnen,
Lower Unterwalden.....		10,203	805	161	Stanz,
Glarus.....	211	29,348	3,625	482	Glarus,
Zug.....	64	15,322	1,250	250	Zug,
Fribourg.....	374	91,145	13,600	1,240	Fribourg,
Soleure.....	192	63,196	13,560	404	Soleure,
Basle City.....	} 139 {	24,321	} 22,950	918	Basle,
Basle Country.....		41,103			Leichstall,
Schaffhausen.....	86	31,125	....	466	Schaffhausen,
Outer Appenzell.....	} 115 {	40,080	7,720	772	Trogen,
Inner Appenzell.....		9,796	1,500	200	Appenzell,
St. Gall.....	565	158,853	39,450	2,630	St. Gall,
Grisons.....	1,938	88,506	12,000	1,600	Chur,
Aargau.....	379	182,755	48,200	2,410	Aargau,
Thurgau.....	203	84,124	22,800	1,520	Frauenfeld,
Tessin.....	781	113,923	18,048	1,804	Bellinzona,
Vaud.....	893	183,582	59,230	2,964	Lausanne,
Valais.....	1,254	75,798	9,600	1,280	Sitten or Sion,
Neuchâtel.....	211	58,616	19,200	960	Neuchâtel,
Geneva.....	69	58,666	22,000	880	Geneva.
Total.....	10,193	2,184,096	529,955	33,754	

**ZURICH** is a country of great beauty and fertility, with a dense population, and highly-cultivated. The climate is mild, and agriculture in a more advanced state than in many of the cantons. Vineyards and orchards are very extensive, and the forests of the higher districts abound with stately timber, which forms a source of public revenue. Peat is dug from the bogs, and a coal-pit is worked at Kapfnach. Grain is abundantly raised; but the chief revenue is derived from manufactures. This canton is divided into 11 prefectures, which form 56 tribes. The sovereign authority is vested in the Great Council, consisting of 212 members. The Executive rests with a smaller Council of 25 members, and the 13 Judges of the Court of Appeals, who decide all capital questions, are elected from the body of the Great Council. The religion of the canton is Protestant, and the clergy are governed by a synod of ten chapters. Public instruction is universal, and ably conducted. At Zurich, theology, law, and medicine, are taught, and every other branch of science and literature cultivated with success. The principal towns and remarkable places are Zurich, Winterthur, Wädenschwyl, Staefa, Pfaffikon, and Eglisau.

*Zurich*, the capital, is situated at the northwest end of the Zurcher-see, where the Limmat gushes from in a broad, impetuous stream. The valley in which it is built is surrounded by high mountains. Zurich has long been distinguished in science and literature, and hence has acquired the title of the Athens of Switzerland. It has a great number of public buildings, and is replete with curiosities. Various manufactures are carried on. The two portions of the town divided by the river, are connected by three

bridges. Population, 12,000. *Winterthur*, 12 miles north-east of Zurich, is celebrated for its manufactures and antiquities. Population, 3,500. The other towns mentioned above are comparatively villages, and have nothing important to demand description. Twelve miles south of Zurich is *Cappel*, where Zuingle, the Swiss reformer, was killed in a battle, fought between the Catholics and Protestants, in 1531.

**BERNE** is the second canton in point of size, but a great part of its surface is too mountainous for cultivation. The northern parts are well-cultivated, and produce corn and wine in abundance. Cows and sheep pasture in the hills, and the dairies are excellent. Linen is the chief manufacture, and in one of the districts watches are made. Berne is divided into four bailiwicks, of which the capital forms one. The mountains of the canton are rich in minerals, but from the expense of working them they are untouched. There are also a number of mineral springs, and thousands annually visit them for their medicinal virtues. The Protestant religion is established by law. The government is vested in two Councils, the smaller of which exercises the executive power. All citizens of the canton are eligible for offices of public trust.

*Berne*, the capital, lies on the left bank of the Aar, and is 1,708 feet above the sea-level. It is one of the finest towns of Europe. The view from the city extends over a splendid country; numerous fountains adorn the city, and streams of water run profusely down the channels in the centre of the streets. Population, 20,500. There are many interesting places in this canton, and many striking scenes captivate the eyes of the traveller in this majestic country.

**LUCERNE** is generally covered with hills, and intersected by numerous valleys. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the people; but neither that, nor the small manufactures which exist, indicate improvement. In the valley of the Entlibach cattle are reared by a race of men of prodigious and remarkable powers. The Catholic is the established religion.

*Lucerne* is situated at the lower end of the lake of the forest cantons, on the Reuss, which divides it into two parts. The town is ill-built, and the streets narrow. Long bridges stretch across the stream, and connect the two sections. Lucerne has a population of 6,000. Mount Pilate rises above the town 5,760 feet, and contains at its summit a small lake in which Pontius Pilate is said to have drowned himself.

**SCHWEIZ**, to the east of Lucerne, is one of three cantons that laid the foundation of the independence of Helvetia, and has given its name to the country and the people which compose the confederacy. The whole canton is devoted, with trifling exceptions, to pasturing and the breeding of cattle. Cotton-spinning and lace-making have been lately introduced.

*Schweiz*, the capital, is situated at the foot of Mythen, a double-crested mountain, 5,868 feet high. The vicinity is truly delightful. Population, 5,000. *Einsiedeln*, five miles north-north-east, is a celebrated Benedictine Convent, to which a miracle-working Virgin attracts crowds of devotees from Catholic countries. *Kusnach*, upon a bay of the Lake of Lucerne, is noted in Swiss history as the place near which Geisler was killed by William Tell—the spot is marked by Tell's chapel. *Gersau*, upon the same lake, a pretty little town, with 900 inhabitants, was, prior to 1798, a sovereign republic, and was then considered as the smallest state in Europe.

URI, one of the original cantons which formed the Swiss Confederation, lies to the south of Schweiz, and consists of ten or twelve valleys embosomed amid the Alps. The whole canton is covered with meadow and Alpine pasturage. The government is democratic, and the religion Catholic.

*Altorf*, a small town, is the capital, with 15,000 inhabitants, situated near the lake, and is noted as the cradle of Swiss liberty. *Fluelen*, a village on the lake, is the port of Altorf. The road into Italy by the pass of St. Gothard, is carried up the valley along the channel of the Reuss, which it crosses several times; one of the crossings being by the *Teufel's Bruck* or *Devil's Bridge*, noted for a sanguinary conflict between the Russians and the French in 1799. The hospice of St. Gothard is 6,808 feet above the level of the sea. On the shore of the lake, near Fluelen, is *Tell's Platte*, the spot where he escaped from Geisler; and on the opposite side of the lake, 3 miles N. W., is *Rutli* or *Grutli*, the meadow where the revolt of the Swiss against the Austrian yoke was plotted.

UNTERWALDEN, one of the original cantons, lies among the Alps, and is composed of five valleys, covered with meadows and pastures, and contains four lakes, and two considerable streams, the Aa and the Melchbach. The eastern part of the canton enjoys a mild climate. The canton is now divided into two separate democratic republics. The Roman Catholic is the established religion; and the people have been always distinguished for their gravity and devotion, and for unlimited confidence in their priests.

*Stanz*, the capital of the Nedwald, or lower division, is situated not far from the lake, and contains about 2,000 inhabitants. *Starnen*, the capital of the Obwald, or upper division, is a fine town at the north end of a lake, with about 2,000 inhabitants, a beautiful church, an arsenal, and a college. *Engelbert*, near the Aa, in a romantic valley, is celebrated for its Benedictine Abbey, the abbot of which was formerly a sovereign prince.

GLARUS lies to the eastward of Uri and Schweiz, and consists of one large valley, with three lateral branches, all encompassed by high mountains, which enclose the canton on all sides except the north. The Roman Catholic faith and Protestantism are both recognised by the state, but most of the people are Protestants. The canton abounds in slate quarries, the principal of which is in the Sernft-thal, where slates are obtained of a size large enough to serve as tables.

*Glarus*, the capital, is situated on the Linth, and has flourishing manufactures, and about 4,000 inhabitants. *Mollis* and *Schwanden* are two considerable towns, with cotton manufactures. *Nafels* is a village near the Linth, noted for a victory gained by the Swiss in 1388; and *Elm*, a small village in the Sernft-thal, in the neighbourhood of which is Martinsloch, a large round hole in the mountain of Falsberg, behind which the sun passes on the 3d, 4th, and 5th of March, and 14th, 15th, and 16th of September each year. Owing to the great height of the mountain the village loses the sight of the sun for six weeks in winter.

ZUG is the smallest of the cantons, and consists chiefly of mountains covered with wood. The inhabitants are Catholics, and have enjoyed a popular government ever since the year 1352. They are chiefly employed in the cultivation of their orchards, vineyards, and fields; but the produce of their flocks and mountain pastures is their principal resource.

*Zug*, the capital, is a pretty little town at the north-east side of the lake,

and contains about 3,000 inhabitants. *Morgarten* is a defile on the east side of the lake of Eggeri, where, in the year 1313, 1,300 Swiss gained a splendid victory over an army of 20,000 Austrians.

**FRIBOURG**, or **FREYBOURG**, between Berne and Vaud, is traversed nearly from the one end to the other by the river Sarine or Saanen. The upper part of the canton is mostly composed of hills and mountains, the lower abounds with pastures, fields, and forests.

*Fribourg*, the capital, is a considerable town of a very remarkable appearance, built partly upon the bank of the Sarine, and partly upon the declivity of a steep rock. Its principal buildings are:—the cathedral, whose steeple is the highest in Switzerland, and its organ the finest toned in Europe; the Town-house; the new Jesuits college, capable of accommodating 500 or 600 boys, who are educated in all the branches of literature and philosophy; the new suspension bridge, thrown across the Sarine, and very remarkable for its great length, and its great height above the river. It stretches across a gorge 160 feet deep, and has a span of 885 feet. The trade and industry of the inhabitants have made considerable progress of late years.—Population, 7,000. In the immediate vicinity, on the banks of the Sarine, is the Grotto de la Madeleine, consisting of a chapel, with its belfry, a large hall, and several other rooms, a kitchen and a cellar, all cut in the rock between the years 1670 and 1680, by the hermit Jean Dusré.

**SOLEURE** is situated between the Aar and Mont Jura, and extends a considerable distance among its ridges. The care of their flocks and herds, and the cultivation of their fields, are the chief occupation of the inhabitants, who excel in the art of watering and manuring them. They plant immense quantities of fruit-trees, but pay very little attention to the culture of the vine. A few of them are also engaged in the linen, woollen, and cotton manufactures. With few exceptions they profess the Catholic faith.

*Soleure*, or *Solothurn*, the capital, is a fine little trading-town, upon the Aar. The church of St. Ursus is considered the finest in Switzerland. In the vicinity are:—excellent stone quarries; the celebrated hermitage of Saint Verena; the farm-house of Wissenstein, built upon the top of a hill, 4,221 feet above the level of the sea, and 2,600 above Soleure, from which the whole valley that separates the Jura from the Alps may be seen at one glance.

**BASLE** is situated at the north-western corner of Switzerland, on the north side of the Jura, and consists of several fertile valleys, bordered by mountains covered with excellent pasturage. It is plentifully supplied with springs and rivulets, of which the people have availed themselves for irrigating their meadows, a branch of agriculture which they have brought to a high degree of perfection. It is now divided into two separate republics. The government is decidedly democratic, and the system of equality established by law is the boast of the citizens.

*Basle*, the capital, is situated upon the Rhine, at the point where it turns to the northward, 462 feet above the level of Strasbourg, and 950 above that of Amsterdam. It is a well-built and large city, consisting of two towns, named Great Basle and Little Basle, divided by the Rhine, across which there is a fine bridge. Great Basle is on the left bank of the river, and contains about 1,759 houses, with wide and handsome streets, and well-built suburbs. Little Basle is on the right bank, and contains

only 450 houses, with narrow and irregular streets. Next to Zurich and Geneva, Basle is particularly distinguished for the intelligence and industry of its citizens, and for the extent of their trade. It contains a famous university, and a number of other scientific and literary societies and institutions.—Population, about 18,000.

SCHAFFHAUSEN is a small hilly canton, entirely situate upon the right, or northern side of the Rhine, to the westward of the Boden-see. The cultivation of the vine is one of the chief occupations of the people, and their wine is the best in German Switzerland. The inhabitants are all Protestants.

*Schaffhausen*, the capital, is situated on the slope of the northern bank of the Rhine, and is a pretty, well-built town, with an industrious population, and considerable trade. Its celebrated wooden bridge, which was burned by the French in 1799, has been succeeded by another no way remarkable. Population, 7,000.

APPENZELL is entirely surrounded by the canton of St. Gall. It is divided into two separate states, called the Inner Rhoden and the Ausser Rhoden, or the Catholic and the Reformed Appenzell. Their government, finance, police and other public matters, are quite distinct; but the two deputies whom they send to the Diet have only one vote, which they lose if they cannot agree in opinion. Both states are democracies; every man above 16 years of age having a vote in the Lands-gem-inde, or general assembly, which is held in the open air, and decide on peace or war, on the laws, and elect the magistrates and executive councils. The Inner Appenzell is an Alpine country, where the people are mostly employed in the rearing of cattle; the people of Ausser Rhoden, or Outer Appenzell, are distinguished for their manufacturing industry, and their attachment to trade. Great numbers of snails are fattened at Appenzell, whence they are conveyed a short time before Lent to the convents of Swabia and Bavaria, where they are considered as delicacies.

*Appenzell*, a considerable town with 5,000 inhabitants, is the capital of the Catholic state; *Trogen*, a fine little town, with a considerable trade, and an industrious population of 2,400 inhabitants, is the capital of the Protestant division.

ST. GALL is composed generally of hills and mountains, interspersed with cultivated valleys, fields, vineyards, and orchards. Besides the ordinary branches of agricultural industry, manufactures of various kinds, particularly cotton and muslins of the finest texture have been introduced. The iron and glass works are also in some repute, and new enterprises of various kinds are daily rising into notice. The government is entirely popular, and is vested in a grand council of 150 members, from whom are chosen the judges, magistrates, and public officers. In the capital is a lyceum for Catholics, and a gymnasium for Protestants, which are tolerably well organized. Several of the smaller towns have public schools; and education is spreading generally over the canton.

*St. Gallen*, the capital, is a considerable town, very industrious and commercial, situated upon the Steinach. It is one of the cleanest, prettiest, and best built towns in Switzerland, the centre of an extensive manufacture of fine cloths and muslins; and its manufactures extend their connections even into Swabia, where a great deal of work is done on their account.—Population, 10,000.

The canton of the **GRAUBUNDTEN**, or **GRISONS**, is, next to Berne, the largest in Switzerland. The whole territory is one congeries of snow-clad Alps, interspersed with valleys not less remarkable for their beauty and fertility, than for the sublime and magnificent framework in which they are set. With the exception of the northern chain of mountains, which consists of immense argillaceous and calcareous masses, all the Alps of the Grisons are of primitive formation, and very rich in minerals, particularly in iron. Mines of lead, copper, silver, and even gold, have been worked in them for many years. The canton consists of three leagues, or federal republics; the Grey League; the League of the House of God; and the League of the Ten Jurisdictions; each of which has different laws and usages, and is in many respects almost quite independent. About two-thirds of the people are Protestants, and the remainder Catholics; and besides the episcopal chapter at Chur, there are in the canton seven convents, among which is the celebrated abbey of *Dissentis*. The schools are daily attracting more attention on the part of government, and a great public seminary has lately been established in the capital. The principal employment of the people is agriculture and grazing, and they carry on a great trade in horned cattle.

*Chur*, or *Coire*, the capital, occupies a picturesque situation on the Plessour, about two miles from its confluence with the Rhine, and on the great road to Italy by the Spulgen. It is the see of a Catholic bishop, who resides alternately here and at St. Gallen; has about 5,000 inhabitants, and carries on a considerable trade.

**AARGAU**, or **ARGOVIA**, extends along the south bank of the Rhine, between Zurich and Basle, and stretches southward to the borders of Lucerne. It is one of the largest and most fertile of the cantons, and includes the lower part of the valleys of the Aar, the Reuss, and the Limmat.

*Aargau*, the capital, is a fine town with about 4,000 inhabitants, situate upon the Aar, and distinguished for its manufacturing industry, and the activity of its printing presses.

**THURGAU**, or **THURGOVIA**, is situate in the north-eastern part of Switzerland, between the Lake of Constance and the cantons of Zurich and St. Gall. It is composed, like the rest, of plains and hills, and the soil is reckoned the richest and most productive in German Switzerland.

*Frauenfeld*, the capital, a small town near the right bank of the Murg, has several silk manufactories, and about 1,800 inhabitants.

**TESSIN** is situate on the south side of the great chain of the Alps, and is chiefly composed of the valleys of the Tessin or Ticino, and some other streams that flow to the Lago Maggiore and the Lake of Lugano, with the lofty mountain ridges which divide them. The climate is mild, and the soil is fertile and well watered; yet in no part of Switzerland is there more poverty, bordering on wretchedness, so much idleness, and so little industry. All the people, except those of the village of Bosco in the Val Maggia, are of Italian extraction; and the Roman Catholic faith is the only religion tolerated in the canton.

*Bellinzona*, or *Bellenz*, the capital, is a small town, with about 1,300 inhabitants, situate on the Tessin, in the lower part of the great Val Levantine; and is one of the most important points in Switzerland in a military and commercial view, on account of the great roads which meet there; viz: that of *St. Gothard*, between Ariolo in this canton, and Andermatt in the canton of Uri, a fine carriage road, which was completed at the expense of



the two cantons in 1830, instead of the old one, which was only passable for mules and horses; that of *Lukmanier*, between Faido in Tessin, and Santa Maria in the Grisons; that of *Bernardin*, which connects the Val Misocco with the great road of the Splugen; and that of *Monte Cenere*, between Bellinzona and Lugano, terminating at Como; and lastly, the road to Milan along the Lago Maggiore by Sesto Calende.

VAUD includes a part of the chain of Jura, and the western extremity of the Bernese Alps. The greater part, however, of the canton, consists of plains intersected by cultivated hills of great beauty and fertility, more particularly along the shores of the Lake of Geneva, which forms its southern boundary. The vines of this canton are considered equal to any in Europe; and the wine enjoys a considerable reputation. The inhabitants are mostly employed in agriculture, and profess the Protestant faith, though Catholics are allowed the free exercise of their religion.

*Lausanne*, the capital, a fine city with 12,000 inhabitants, is situated upon three hills near the northern shore of the Lake of Geneva, 432 feet above its level. The streets are narrow, and in some places very steep. The cathedral church of Notre-Dame is a handsome Gothic building, and the view from its tower is very beautiful. The town possesses numerous privileges, and appoints its own magistrates. It possesses likewise a college founded at the Reformation, and several scientific and literary institutions. The environs of Lausanne are renowned for their beauty, and are studded with large and delightful villas, inhabited by opulent Swiss or foreigners.

VALAIS is the largest of all the valleys of Switzerland, and is traversed through its whole length by the Rhone. Besides the main valley, there are 13 inhabited lateral valleys on the south side, and three on the north, with others that are not inhabited. It is surrounded by lofty mountains, and the only place where it can be entered on level ground is at St. Maurice, where, however, the passage is so narrow, that the gate of that town serves every evening to shut up the entrance of the valley; and here it is that the waters of the valley are carried off by the Rhone through a narrow gorge, between the Dent de Midi, and the Dent de Morcles, which rise on each side at least 8,000 feet above its level. This pass is named *Die pforte des Wallis*; and above it, the bottom of the valley rises gradually to the foot of Mont Furca, where the Rhone has its source at the height of 4,626 feet above the level of the Lake of Geneva. In summer, owing to the narrowness of the valley, and the height of its mountain walls preventing a free passage to the air, the heat in the Lower Valais, from Sion to Foully, is so excessive, that Reaumer's thermometer rises in the shade to  $24\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ , and from  $38^{\circ}$  to  $40^{\circ}$  when exposed to the sun on the tops of the rocks. This part of the valley is quite inaccessible to the north wind; the E., S., and W. winds alternately prevail. The Valais is indeed one of the most remarkable countries, not only of Switzerland, but of Europe; for nowhere else can be found so limited a district, combining the productions and climates of every latitude, from the climate of Iceland to that of Sicily and Northern Africa, and offering so inexhaustible a variety of the most contrary objects, so rapid a transition from barren mountains and frightful precipices, to beautiful plains and luxuriant vegetation. In some parts of Valais the harvest begins in May, but in others the corn is not cut till October. In some places fruit will not ripen, but in others the wild asparagus is seen to grow; the almond, the fig, and the pomegranate, to attain the highest degree of maturity; and, with hardly any labor or particular attention, the soil produces vines from

which the most excellent wine may be made. In the mountain districts are found chamois, lynxes, dormice, wolves, sometimes hares, bucks, and many curious wild birds. The greater part of the Valais is inhabited by a population of a mixed descent from Celts, Romans, Gauls, and Burgundians. The people of the Upper Valais speak the old German of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, with little alteration; the language of the Lower Valais is a barbarous jargon of Celtic, Latin, Greek, and Italian-French. The former are a people full of energy, proud of their liberty, and distinguished for their sobriety, and extreme simplicity of manners; the latter, on the contrary, are reproached with idleness, negligence, and slovenliness. The Catholic religion is exclusively professed in the canton. The only articles of export are cattle, cheese, wine, lead, crystal, and cobalt.

*Sitten*, or *Sion*, the capital, is a small and very ancient episcopal city, with about 2,500 inhabitants, not far from the right bank of the Rhone, in the Lower Valais. *St. Maurice*, a small town with 900 inhabitants, is, as already mentioned, the key of the Valais, and is situated on the left bank of the Rhone, 13 miles from its mouth. In its neighborhood are several natural curiosities, particularly the Pissevache, a lofty waterfall of 300 feet. *Martinach*, or *Martigny*, near the confluence of the Dranse with the Rhone, is a small town, from which the road commences that leads over the Great St. Bernard by the valley of the Dranse. This famous mountain is crossed every year by more than 10,000 travellers, for whose accommodation and relief there is a Hospice, near the summit of the pass, until lately kept by Benedictine monks; and is noted for the passage effected over it into Italy by the army of Buonaparte, in the year 1800. In the church of the Hospice is a marble monument, erected by Buonaparte to the memory of General Desaix, who was killed at the battle of Marengo. This Hospice was famous for its dogs, which were kept by the monks for the aid and preservation of such travellers as might lose their way among the snow in severe weather.

NEUFCHÂTEL is a small canton, situate among the ridges of the Jura, between the lake to which it gives its name and the borders of France; and is composed of six or seven valleys, the principal of which are the Val Travers, the Val de Sagne, and the Val de Ruz. The soil affords excellent pasture, but produces few fruit-trees or leguminous plants. The sovereignty of the canton is vested in the King of Prussia, who is bound, however, by the constitution, to maintain it in all its ancient laws, customs, privileges, independence, and religious toleration. His influence, however, is very inconsiderable. He receives only the revenues of some domains, and a very moderate land-tax, which he cannot augment. Every profession and trade are free, no customs are levied, and no duties imposed on any goods which enter or leave the canton.

*Neufchatel*, or *Neuenburg*, the capital, is a well-built and thriving town on the slope of a hill, at the mouth of the Seyon, a torrent that runs through the Val de Ruz into the Lake of Neufchatel. It contains several remarkable buildings: particularly the chateau, the ancient residence of the princes of Neufchatel; the cathedral built in the twelfth century; the town-house, and the public hospital. Population, about 5,000.

GENEVA is a very small canton at the south-western corner of Switzerland, almost entirely separated from the other cantons by the territories of Savoy and France. Though not naturally fertile, it has been rendered productive by the industry of its inhabitants. Three-fifths of the population are Calvinists; the remainder are Roman Catholics, under the spiritual jurisdiction

of the Bishop of Fribourg. The sovereignty is vested in a representative council of 274, elected for nine years by the citizens; and the executive in a council of state, of 24 members, named by the representative council.

*Geneva*, the capital, is situate on the slopes of two hills divided by the Rhone, where it issues from the lake, forming in its course two islands, on one of which stand part of the town, and the other contains a fine promenade planted with trees, and adorned with a statue of the noted Jean Jacques Rousseau. The two banks of the river, and the island, are now connected by a suspension-bridge; and a handsome quay, lined with fine buildings, has been constructed along the river. The streets are in general wide and commodious, except in the busy part of the town, where they are inconveniently narrow, and darkened by arcades. The churches are of very ordinary description; the principal is that of St. Peter, an ancient edifice, with a modern colonnade. The town-house, the hospital, the museum of the fine arts, the museum of natural history, and that of the botanic garden, and the penitentiary, are the principal public buildings. The academy founded by Calvin may be considered as a university, in respect of the number of its professors, and the variety and importance of the branches of study. The citizens of Geneva are noted for their industry, as well as for their scientific and literary attainments. The most important branches of work are horologerie, or watch and clock making, and jewellery, in which they produce every year about 100,000 watches, and use about 60,000 ounces of gold, 5,000 marks of silver, and \$100,000 worth of precious stones. Population, 36,000.

Switzerland was anciently known as *Lusitania* and *Helvetia* and occupied by the Suevi and other barbaric tribes, who, in after ages, shared in spreading empire westward. After its conquest by Julius Cæsar, the Romans found within its limits several flourishing cities, as *Aventicum*, &c., which were afterwards destroyed by the northern barbarians. On the decline of the Roman Empire, it successively formed a part of the kingdom of Burgundy and of the dominions of the Merovingian and Carlovingian kings, while the east part of Switzerland became first subject to the *Allemanni*, and subsequently it was wholly included in the German Empire under Conrad II., in 1037.

The house of Hapsburg had, from an early period, the supremacy over all the eastern part of Switzerland; and it preserved its ascendancy till about 1307, when Uri, Schweiz and Unterwalden, entered into a confederacy for mutual aid against Austria, which compact was confirmed after the defeat of Leopold, Duke of Austria, at the battle of Morgarten, in 1315. From 1332 to 1352, Lucerne, Zurich, Glarus, Zug and Berne joined the confederation. Aargau was conquered from Austria in 1415; the Abbey and town of St. Gall joined the other cantons in 1451-'54; Thurgau was taken in 1560; Fribourg and Solothurn admitted in 1481; the Grisons in 1497; Basle and Schaffhausen in 1501, and Appenzell in 1513. About this time Tessin was conquered from the Milanese; and Vaud was taken from Savoy by the Bernese in 1560. The remaining cantons were not finally united to the confederation till the time of Napoleon; and the present compact, by which all the cantons are placed on a perfect equality, only dates from the peace of 1815.

Various political alterations have, since that period, taken place in the relative position of the cantons, and many of the old land-marks are broken down. The democratic idea has spread into every corner of the country,

and the cantons which were formerly based on aristocratic or oligarchical institutions, have fallen before the force of enlightened public opinion. The great curse of Switzerland, however, is the antagonism of its two great churches, and in this will ever consist, as it has hitherto proved, the rock destined to split asunder the friendly feelings so intimate a political relation ought to maintain.

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## THE KINGDOM OF BELGIUM.

THIS small kingdom lies between the latitudes of  $49^{\circ} 27'$  and  $51^{\circ} 31'$  north, and between the longitudes of  $2^{\circ} 27'$  and  $6^{\circ}$  east. The greatest length from N. W. to S. E. is about 195 miles, and the greatest breadth from N. E. to S. W. about 127 miles—area, 12,569 square miles, or about the size of the state of Maryland. Fronting on the German Ocean, it has France on the west and south, Rhine Prussia on the east, and Holland on the north.

The borders of Belgium, on the side of France, are rugged and rather mountainous, being traversed by a continuation of the Ardennes, and other ridges occupying the northern districts of that country. To the north, however, the surface is low, scarcely, if at all, raised above the sea, and is intersected in every direction by numerous rivers and canals, diversified by woods, arable lands, and meadows, and thickly studded with towns and villages. No elevation that can properly be termed a mountain occurs in Belgium, though there is a ridge of considerable height extending between the Meuse and the Moselle, and another between the north bank of the Sambre and the Meuse. As in Holland, the country in the north, along the estuaries and rivers, is protected from inundation by dykes, and along the open sea by sandhills or downs, varying in breadth from one to three miles, and in elevation from 50 to 60 feet. The navigation of the sea is rendered intricate by sandy accumulations, and for large ships even dangerous.

Belgium is one of the best watered countries in Europe, and all its waters run to the North Sea. The *SCHELD*T enters the kingdom near Tournay, on the French line, flows through Hainault and East Flanders, separating the latter from Antwerp, below which it enters the Dutch territory, and flows through Zealand in several large branches, which are indeed rather arms of the sea than rivers. It is navigable for large ships to the city of Antwerp, and to a considerable distance inland for smaller vessels. Its principal affluents are:—the Dender; the Ruppel, formed by the Dyle, Senne and two Nethes; and the Haine on the right and the Lys on the left. The *MEUSE* or Maas enters Belgium below Givet, and flows through Namur and Liege, and thence through South Holland to the sea. Its affluents are—the Semoy, Lesse, Ourthe and Roer from the right, and the Sambre from the left.

The climate of Belgium is exceedingly damp—less so, however, than that of Holland. In this respect it varies in accordance with the topography of the country, and in the high regions the country enjoys what may be termed a mild climate. There are several extensive forests in which the oak, the ash, and the beech abound; and from the humidity, the pastures are rich and support luxuriantly the domestic animals of the farms. Some wine is produced, but the vine is not adapted to the soil; fruit trees are rare, and wheat succeeds with difficulty; but great advantage is derived from the cultivation

of rye and oats, and particularly of the potatoe. But a small portion of the territory is incapable of cultivation, viz : about 300,000 acres. Of the remainder, about 1,000,000 acres are covered with woods, 50,000 acres with towns and villages ; 250,000 acres with rivers, canals and roads ; and between five and six millions are under various crops or used as pastures. The horse of Belgium is a dull animal, and fit only for draught—it is a veritable Dutchman, slow and easy, but strong and long-winded. The other domestic animals are remarkably fine conditioned, which is owing to the rich pasture on which they feed. Tobacco, hemp, madder, and particularly flax, which is a staple production of the country, succeed well, but in Flanders find the most congenial soil. Flanders is destitute of forests, but supplies turf in abundance, which is used as a fuel by the inhabitants. Bee-culture is extensively carried on in Limburg.

In the high regions of the south-east the geological characters most developed are red sand-stone and lime-stone, containing organic remains over substrata of granite, quartz and slaty schist. The same strata to the north-west contain vast beds of anthracite, especially around Namur. Porphyry and quartz, calcareous earth, pit-coal and schist, and argillaceous earth, distinguish the province of Hainault, while Flanders and northern Brabant consist chiefly of horizontal layers of clays, and peat surface, the latter of which supplies a cheap fuel. Various land and marine animals are embedded in these, a sufficient proof that at a comparatively recent period the whole low country has been submerged. The islands at the mouth of the rivers seem to be the result of alluvial deposits. The great coal regions of Belgium are spread over a great portion of the centre and west of the kingdom. The number of beds has been stated by M. Dumont at eighty-three. Iron mines are also numerous, particularly in the region between the Sambre and Meuse. Copper, lead, zinc, manganese, pyrites, calamine, sulphur and alum are found in great abundance through all the country south of Brabant. Namur is also rich in porcelain, potter's and pipe clays, and a species of sand adapted for the manufacture of crystal. The clays of Flanders are coarse but well suited for tiles, brick, pottery and pipes. Excellent mill-stones, grind-stones, and whet-stones are supplied from the quarries of Liege and Luxemburg. The mineral springs of Spa, near Liege ; those of Chaudfontaine, in the same neighborhood ; of Morimont, near Namur, and at Tongres, near Maestricht, are the most celebrated in Belgium.

The Belgians are of mixed origin, and spring from the Germanic and Græco-Latin families. To the former belong the proper Belgians or Netherlanders, who speak the Flemish tongue, and a small number of German Dutch, mostly in Limburg and Luxemburg ; and the latter spring from Walloons who inhabit the southern parts of the kingdom, and speak Franco-Flemish and the Vallon, two dialects of the French language. The following table will exhibit the extent and relative population of each of the provinces into which the country is divided :

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Area in sq. mls.</i>	<i>Popula- tion.</i>	<i>Pop to sq. ml.</i>	<i>Chief towns.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
ANTWERP.....	1,098.....	365,000.....	332.....	Antwerp.....	76,000
BRABANT.....	1,269.....	620,000.....	488.....	BRUSSELS.....	120,000
WEST FLANDERS.....	1,251.....	700,000.....	560.....	Bruges.....	47,000
EAST FLANDERS.....	1,158.....	320,000.....	708.....	Ghent.....	95,000
HAINAULT.....	1,438.....	692,000.....	481.....	Mons.....	19,000
LIEGE.....	337.....	420,000.....	1,246.....	Liege.....	60,000
NAMUR.....	1,404.....	256,000.....	183.....	Namur.....	20,000
LIMBURG.....	927.....	175,000.....	188.....	Limburg.....	2,350
LUXEMBURG (in Germany).....	1,712.....	210,000.....	123.....	Arlon.....	3,500

The distribution of the population as exhibited in the table is sufficiently indicative of the leading pursuits of the several provinces. In East and West Flanders, maritime, as also considerable manufacturing interests, congregate large numbers; in the central provinces, and where manufactures are mostly prosecuted, the same average ratio is maintained. South of the Meuse, however, witnesses a great falling off—here the country is almost entirely devoted to agriculture. Of the whole population about two sevenths inhabit cities and towns, and the remainder is scattered over the rural districts; in the province of Antwerp the two classes are about equal in number.

About nineteen twentieths of the Belgians are Roman Catholics, and the church of Rome is established by law. The clergy are very numerous and influential, and, as a general thing, the people are ignorant, bigotted and superstitious. All other religions are tolerated, yet there are not 10,000 Protestants in the whole kingdom. The church is under the jurisdiction of the Archbishop of Malines, and the five bishops of Bruges, Ghent, Liege, Namur and Tournay. The archbishop's salary is about \$20,000 per annum, and those of the bishops vary from \$11,000 to \$15,000. The cures or parish priests are divided into three classes; of the first class there are 81, of the second 165, and of the inferior clergy, 4,422, whose salaries vary from \$40 to \$150 per annum. All salaries are paid out of the public treasury.

Education is said to have retrograded since the revolution. The institutions are of three grades: elementary schools, colleges and Universities. By the Belgic constitution, education ceased to be compulsory; and the government has no control over it, except as regards the few schools paid by the state; the rest is left to individual enterprise, or the caprice of the communes. At least one-third of the rising generation are absolutely without any regular instruction. Luxemburg and Namur are the best educated provinces, and Flanders and Liege the two in which education is most neglected. Belgium, when compared with other countries in respect of the diffusion of instruction, stands just below Austria, and is merely above England. It is several degrees above France and Ireland, but falls very far short of Holland, Switzerland, Prussia, Bavaria, Scotland and the United States. "Athenees" or colleges are established in all the large towns. Besides these there are other colleges for general education, under the exclusive management of the clergy. The Jesuits have establishments of this kind at Brussels, Namur, Alost and Ghent. These institutions are intended to compete with the "Athenees," and are conducted with more marked religious bias. They are, however, distinct from the Theological Seminaries established in each diocese for the education of the priesthood. Two of the universities are supported by the state, at Liege and Ghent; one was founded by the clergy at Louvain, and is supported by the church; and the university of Brussels is supported by a private association. The freedom of university education is almost as great as that of the schools. Degrees, however, can only be conferred by the central body called "Le jury d'examen," at Brussels, composed of members of the several universities, from whom the jury, which assigns the honors, is selected.

Belgium became a kingdom in 1831, and the constitution, on which it is based, vests the sovereignty in Leopold of Saxe Coburg and his heirs in perpetuity. The kingly power, however, is very limited. The legislature is composed of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies; 45,000—one deputy. The senators are elected for eight years and the deputies for four years, by

citizens paying direct tax. One half the deputies is renewed every two and half the senators every four years. The chambers assemble annually on the second Friday in November, but the king has the right to convoke, adjourn or dissolve them at will, and in case of dissolution, a new election of the whole is required. The executive is vested in the king, assisted by six responsible ministers. The king's pay is fixed at £110,053 sterling, besides the use of the royal palaces. The judicial system is modelled after that of France.

The sources of public revenue are the land-tax, personal-tax, patents, rents of mines, customs, excise, stamps, domains, forests, &c.; tolls, post-ages, canals, interests, &c., &c. The whole amounts to about 114,000,000 francs annually. About 19,000,000 francs are expended in paying interest on the national debt, which amounts to about £31,087,200 sterling.

The army is composed of one picked regiment of five battalions; 12 regiments of infantry of the line; 3 regiments of foot chasseurs; 2 regiments of horse chasseurs; 2 regiments of lancers; 2 regiments of cuirassiers; 1 regiment of guides; and 4 regiments of artillery, forming 43 batteries, besides artillery train, pontooneers, &c.—the whole amounting to about 90,000 effective men.

This country, during the 17th and 18th centuries, having been the principal battle-field of Europe, most of the towns were fortified to such an extent, that it may be said to have bristled with fortresses of the first rank. Most of these, however, have been demolished, or allowed to fall into decay. The principal fortresses now remaining are—Namur, Tournay, and Charleroi, the citadels of Antwerp, Ghent, and Liege, and the sea-port towns of Nieuport and Ostend.

Belgium, in reference to its size, is one of the most important manufacturing states of Europe. It has long been distinguished for its genius and industry. The laces of Brussels, Mechlin, &c., the cloths of Brabant, Flanders, and Hainault, the printed cottons of Ghent and Brussels, the carpets and pottery of Tournay, the papers of Liege, the arms and cutlery of Liege, Namur, and Charleroi; the gold and silver work of Ghent, Brussels, and Antwerp; the iron, steel, and brass articles of Namur and Liege; the steam-engines of Seraing, are all well known to the commercial world. The minor manufactures are also extensive, and, together with the above, occupy at least one-fifth of the male population. Mining operations are chiefly undertaken in Liege, Namur, Hainault, and Luxemburg. There are considerable breweries at Brussels and Louvain, and sugar refineries at Ghent and its neighborhood, but there are no large distilling establishments in any of the provinces.

With respect to agricultural industry, Belgium has long been distinguished for productiveness and variety, and the Flemish system of farming has been noticed and recommended for its excellence. The industry of the Flemings has, indeed, within 200 years, converted a tract of land, originally a sandy and barren heath, into a rich and beautiful garden; and the crops of wheat and of oats are considerably larger than in the best cultivated parts of England. Nine-elevenths of the soil is under actual cultivation, and about twice the quantity of corn required for home consumption is annually produced. The cultivators are in tolerably easy circumstances, and this flourishing state of agriculture operates favorably upon manufacturing industry, every branch of which is in full activity. Flax, raised principally in Flanders, Brabant, and Hainault, is one of the principal products, and brings a

high price in foreign markets, on account of its excellent quality. Flanders produces this staple to the value of £1,600,000 annually. The linen of Flanders is also held in high esteem.

The coal mines of Hainault alone produce more than those of the whole of France, and the annual quantity raised in Belgium exceeds 4,000,000 chaldrons. The iron mines were never worked more extensively than at the present time; more than 200,000 tons of iron are annually founded. The cloth manufactures employ 40,000 persons, and a capital of £3,500,000 sterling. In the linen mills 400,000 persons are employed, and the value of the annual product is estimated at £4,500,000 sterling. The cotton interests are in a like flourishing condition, and, notwithstanding the loss of the Dutch colonial markets, have steadily improved since 1830, and now represent a capital of five or six millions. The lace and silk manufactures are also in a thriving condition.

The revolution of 1830 impaired, in no inconsiderable degree, the commerce of the nation; but since that period this great interest has revived, and already eclipses in extent its former range. The principal exports are the productions of its flourishing agriculture, numerous manufactures, and mineral products. The imports consist of colonial produce, and the wines and fruits of southern Europe. The trade between this country and the United States is considerable, and is gradually increasing, as may be seen from the following figures, which represent different periods:

	Imports into United States.	Exports from United States.
1840.....	\$274,867	\$2,320,655
1846.....	836,372	2,381,814
Increase.....	\$561,505	\$61,159

The amount of tonnage employed in this trade in 1846, was: entered United States ports, 12,714 American, and 5,823 foreign: total, 18,537—cleared, 23,375 American, and 6,527 foreign: total, 29,902. The principal commercial towns in the kingdom are—Brussels, Ghent, Liege, Namur, Tournay, Ypres, Mons, Louvain, Verviers, and Malines or Mechlin. The seaport towns are Antwerp, Ostend, Burges, and Nieuport. Belgium possesses several large banking establishments, which are of great service to the manufactures and commerce of the country.

The prosperity of Belgium is promoted, as well as indicated by its excellent system of railroads and other means of intercommunion and connection with other nations. The railroads are constructed upon better principles, and are better managed than in any other country. The lines of the first and second classes are made and upheld by the state; provincial roads by the provinces; and the smaller by-roads by the communes. Sometime after the accession of Leopold, he caused the whole country to be surveyed, the necessary plans and estimates formed, and on 1st May, 1834, a law was passed, according to which a system of railroads was to be introduced throughout the kingdom, and executed at the public expense; and so rapid has the work been progressed with, that at the present day the whole territory is traversed by lines, which also extend into other states, and by which Paris and all the large towns of France are connected with those of Belgium. At the end of 1838 two hundred and fifty-nine miles had been opened, and at the end of 1847 about 548 miles. The Great Northern Railway, which unites Paris and Brussels, is said to be the most gigantic



railway concern in the hands of any one company in the world ; it requires 3,250 carriages, and 175 locomotives.

Belgium likewise contains a great number of canals, the aggregate length of which amounts to 286 miles, besides 593 miles of navigable rivers. The Canal of Ostend, which connects that seaport with Ghent, passing Burges, is one of the most ancient and most remarkable.

The nine provinces before enumerated form the principal administrative divisions of the kingdom. These are sub-divided into *arrondissements*, *communes*, and *cantons*, on the model of the divisions of France. In each province there is a governor, directly amenable to the minister of the interior, for the purpose of superintending and enforcing the execution of the laws, and each *arrondissement* is superintended by a commissary, under the governor. The provinces and communes have also provincial and communal councils to manage their own local affairs, the members of which are chosen by citizens qualified to elect the national representatives.

BRUSSELS, (BRUXELLES,) capital of the kingdom, and chief town of Brabant, is situated partly on the low banks of the Seine, and partly on an acclivity which rises from the river. The lower part, the least healthy and least regular, has many houses built in the old Gothic style, but the quarter next the park has wide straight streets and elegant buildings. The houses are of stone, and form altogether a remarkably fine town. The Place Royal and that of St. Michael, both adorned with fine edifices, are the principal squares. The promenades of Brussels, and especially the Park, are superb, and are adorned with several excellent specimens of statuary. The public wells are also very handsome. The upper part of the town is by far the most elegant, and contains the palaces, the Senate-house, and other public and private buildings, the latter the residences of the aristocracy and wealthy classes. Of the other public buildings, the town-house and cathedral are most worthy of notice. A great number of scientific and literary institutions also add lustre to the splendor of Brussels. A very extensive trade is carried on, and the city serves as a general mart to all the kingdom for objects of taste and luxury. It communicates with the Scheldt by a canal, which is sufficiently capacious for vessels of 300 tons, and for the accommodation of which there is a basin large enough for 400 sail. Brussels is also the centre of the great railroad system of Belgium, and communicates by these means with every section, and with the whole of France by a grand line directly westward. The tapestry and carpet manufactures, for which Brussels was once so famous, no longer exist, but it still produces a number of miscellaneous articles, particularly lace, which no other place can match. The business of printing and publishing has for some time formed one of the chief trades of Brussels, and the re-publication of foreign works is carried on, as in the United States, to a great extent. To the north of the city is "Lacken," a fine village, with a magnificent palace, where the King passes the fine weather.

LOUVAIN, also in Brabant, a large and fine town, said once to have contained 200,000 inhabitants, but now only 26,000, is celebrated for its cloth manufactures, and its brazierie. Its university was once the most flourishing in Europe, and though suppressed during the French domination, has regained not a little of its former status. Among the principal buildings are its old Gothic town-house, the Church of St. Peter, the Frascati, a building for balls and spectacles, and the great prison.

**NIVELLES, WATERLOO, GENAPPE, BELLE ALLIANCE, QUATRE-BRAS, WAYRE**, the forest of **SOIGNES**, &c., all to the south and south-east of Brussels, are noted for the great battle fought there in June, 1815, when Napoleon was completely discomfited, and Europe purchased so dearly a lasting peace. A monument in the form of a conical hill, 200 feet high, surmounted with the Belgian lion in bronze, has been erected near Waterloo, to commemorate an event of such august importance as the triumph of king-craft over the democratic principles of the age in their struggles for existence.

**ANTWERP**, (*Antwerpen—Anvers*), capital of the province of the same, on the navigable waters of the Scheldt, is a large and beautiful city, strongly fortified by walls and ditches, and at the south-west side is the famous citadel, where the Dutch so obstinately maintained the siege against the French in 1832. The whole vicinity is one perfect flat. The streets of the city are generally narrow, lined with high houses of a sombre, antique character, and having a dull, monastic appearance. The finest building is the Cathedral of Notre Dame, noted for its extent and the grandeur of its decorations, both inside and mural. Its steeple is 466 feet high. The Town-house and Bourse are also elegant buildings. Antwerp possesses likewise, several important scientific institutions. The trade of the city, though retaining but a shadow of its former importance, is still considerable, and is daily increasing, commensurate with the increase of the general prosperity of the country. The amount of shipping has doubled within the last fifteen years. The navigation of the Scheldt, below Antwerp, is defended by several forts, of which that of Lillo is the principal.

**MECHLIN** or **MALINES**, nearly midway between Antwerp and Brussels, contains about 24,000 inhabitants, and has numerous manufactories of lace, hats, cloth, &c. The archbishop is Primate of Belgium.

**GHEENT** or **GAND**, (anciently *Gaunt*), at the confluence of the Lys with the Scheldt, where the river is divided by several islands, is the ancient capital of Flanders, and prior to the days of Spanish oppression was as flourishing and populous as Antwerp. It was then the principal seat of the cloth manufactures of the continent. The revival of the town is of late date. The cotton manufacture, which was introduced from Manchester in 1801, has become a flourishing branch of industry. Its numerous canals, large population, and the cheapness of food, indeed point it out as a fitting place for any manufacturing business. By its canals and rivers it communicates with Antwerp, Brussels, Tournay, Courtray, Bruges, and Ostend; and in the centre of the town there is a fine basin, deep enough for ships of 800 or 900 tons burthen, and capable of containing 400 sail. It communicates with the sea by the canal of Terneuse. Ghent has a number of literary and scientific institutions, and all the general appliances of large cities. Trains leave by the south line of railway for Paris twice a-day.

**BRUGES**, the chief town of West Flanders, is situated on the canal that passes from Ghent to Ostend, and communicates by other canals with Ecluse and Nieupoort. It has a spacious basin to which ships can come in full sail by this canal. Bruges, though sunk from its ancient glory, has still a large share of manufactures and commerce, which, with its ship-building, &c., entitle it to rank among the principal cities of the kingdom. It is now connected with Ostend and Ghent by the great railway.

**OSTEND** is a small seaport town, with a tolerable harbor, and is connected, through canal and railway, with the principal interior cities. It has also a fine sea-bathing establishment, which attracts a great number of strangers. Population, 11,000.

**MONS** or **BERGEN**, (Anglicé **HILL**,) the capital of Hainault, is a strongly fortified city, partly situated on a height.\* In its neighborhood are numerous and important coal mines.

**TOURNAY**, also in Hainault, is considered one of the most active manufacturing towns in the kingdom. Among its principal productions are carpets, camlets, and porcelain. Population, 29,000. About three miles south-east of Tournay is Fontenoy, noted for the defeat of the British army, by the French, under Marshal Saxe, in 1745; and about 10 miles south-west of Mons, but beyond the frontier, is Malplaquet, the scene of one of Marlborough's battles, fought in 1709.

**NAMUR**, capital of the province of the same name, and situated at the confluence of the Sambre with the Meuse, is noted in history as an important object in the wars of King William and Queen Anne, of England; and in modern times, for its manufactures of military weapons, and fine cutlery, its tanneries and potteries. It is strongly fortified. In this province are the important slate quarries of Herbemont and the iron mines of Philippeville.

**LIEGE**, (**LUIK** or **LUTTICH**,) is a large episcopal city, at the confluence of the Outhé with the Meuse. Its inexhaustible coal mines, its numerous forges, royal cannon foundry, manufactures of arms, iron-mongery, tanneries, cloth manufactures, glass and crystal works, and its extensive commerce, render it one of the most important places in the kingdom, if not in Europe. It is built, with little regard to regularity, along the river, across which there are several bridges. It contains a university, founded by King William, which has 46 professors, and is attended by 400 or 500 students. The valley of the Meuse, and the hills that bound it, are rich in mines of iron-stone, zinc, lead, copper, sulphur, alum, and coal; also in quarries of marble and slate. The iron manufacture is the staple of the district. While Namur manufactures goods like those of Sheffield, Liege produces articles like to those of Birmingham. Steam engines and machinery are now made to a great extent in Liege, and its vicinity; but principally at Seraing, an establishment some two or three miles up the valley, on the banks of the Meuse, and belonging to the eminent John Cockerell; and which, with steam engines of not less, altogether, than 1,000 horse power, and 3,000 workmen, sends forth daily for use 25 or 30 tons of machinery of every description.

But few other towns demand detailed description. **HERISTAL** is noted for its iron works; **GLONS**, for its straw-hat manufactures; **DALHEM**, for its cloths; and **HERVE**, for its cheese. **VERVIERS**, a town of 19,000 inhabitants, has numerous manufactories of cloths and cassimeres, and several large forges, where steam-engines are made. **THEUX** is celebrated for its bar and sheet iron, and also its quarry of black marble, one of the finest in Europe. **LIMBURG** is a small cloth manufacturing town. **SPA**, is noted for its mineral waters, and attracts crowds from all Europe. The water issues from seven different springs; it is perfectly clear, but, after standing, gives a slight deposit of ochre. It has an acid, chalybeate taste, and continually emits gaseous bubbles. Its temperature is 40° Fahr., and its specific gravity 1,00098. The scenery of the neighborhood is very picturesque. The iron and coal mines near **HUY** employ several hundred families. At **ST. TRON** they manufacture lace of great beauty; also fire-arms. The inhabitants of **TONGRES** live by the mineral waters in its neighborhood.

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\* Its fortifications are to be, if not already, demolished.

ARLON, in Belgian Luxemburg, is a town of about 3,500 inhabitants, and has several foundries in its neighborhood; and BOUILLON, a small fortified place, with about 3,000 inhabitants, is the capital of the ancient duchy of the same name.

In the ages immediately preceding and subsequent to the Christian era, much of the great plain of Flanders and Antwerp was partially overflowed by the ocean. The soil was so marshy that an inundation or a tempest threw down whole forests, such as are still discovered below the surface. The sea and rivers had no limits, and the earth no solidity. Many of the inhabitants of this low plain lived in huts placed on mounds of sand, or elevated above the reach of the tides upon stakes. They had fish for food, rain-water for drink, and peat for fuel. (*Plinii, Hist. Nat., Lib. xvi.*) The forest of Ardennes then covered the present country of the Walloons, which extended from the Rhine to the Scheldt, and afforded shelter to numerous tribes of the German race, (*Cæs., Lib. ii., 4.*) who lived by hunting; and by rudely cultivating the earth. They formed under the Romans part of Gallia Belgica, and were the least civilized and most savage of all the Gallic nations. They had a stone-walled city, regular armies, and numerous flocks and herds. The people were slaves, under chiefs, and the religion Druidism. To oppose the Romans, 120,000 fighting men appeared, and nearly defeated their legions. The highland tribes soon amalgamated with their conquerors, but the lowlanders continued faithful to their ancient pursuits and manners, and sought only to secure national independence by maritime commerce and industry.

In the third, fourth, and fifth centuries, the character of the people was essentially changed by the repeated invasions of the Salian Franks, the progress of whose conquests terminated in the Frankish or French Empire in all Gaul, under the sway of which the natives were all destroyed. In the time of Charlemagne the physical surface of the country was much improved. Embankments had been raised against the sea, and in the east large forests had been cleared away. The monastic system and the whole clerical force of Rome had been introduced, and quickly engrossed the best of the country. At this period the people had commenced the formation of *guilds* for mutual protection, and in opposition against despotism. These were the origin of the ancient municipal corporations; and one hundred years after Charlemagne the whole of Flanders was covered with corporate towns. At the end of the ninth century, and for 150 years after, the Normans committed their piratical ravages in Belgium. In 1070 great progress had been made in commerce, and wool was imported largely from England. At this time woollen stuffs and the herring fishery were their principal source of wealth; and the men of Flanders were reported so valorous, as to be sought by warring kings to lead their vassals against an enemy. The army of William the Conqueror, with which he invaded England, was chiefly composed of Flemings; and a Flemish princess, the wife of the conqueror, embroidered with her own hands the celebrated tapestry of Bayeux, which represents the whole history of that event.

The country had long been divided into provinces, and parcelled out to different great families, and subject to different laws. Hence, the counties or earldoms of Flanders, Namur and Hainault; the duchies of Brabant, Limburg and Luxemburg; the principality of Liege; the marquisate of Antwerp; and the seignory of Mechlin. At the end of the eleventh century all the states, except Flanders, had been reduced to waste by the ravages of

feudal wars. The Crusades now spread a frenzy over Europe, and many of the nobles sold their estates to join in the subjection of the Musselman. The wealthy burgesses of Flanders foresaw their emancipation from bondage, and purchased their independence and a country for themselves. The gradual encroachment of the people, in no long space of time, reduced the whole territory to the condition of a democracy, and while the rest of Europe was sunk in despotism and barbarism, the court of the Count of Flanders was the chosen residence of liberty, civilization and learning, and Bruges and Antwerp engrossed all the commerce of northern Europe. But yet there was no collective idea of Belgium—all was disunited, and the cities and scattered principalities recognized no one master. In this state the provinces remained until they came under the dominion of the Duke of Burgundy, about the middle of the fifteenth century, under whom the low country enjoyed remarkable prosperity. Luxurious living was now introduced, and the people were clad in velvets and wore jewelry.

This luxurious mode of life produced depravity, and crime increased to a fearful extent, so much so, that in the city of Ghent 1,400 murders were committed in one year in the gambling houses and other places of debauchery. The Flemish school of painting now arose, and literature found a congenial soil. In 1479 Belgium passed under the Austrian yoke, and after many contests between the despot Maximilian and the democratic Flemings, fell to the share of his grand-son Charles V. of Spain, and emperor of Germany. The prosperity of the nation now attained its acmé, but this prosperity experienced a rapid and fatal decline under the tyrannical and bigotted Philip II., his son. The fury of the Protestant Reformation burst forth, and fanaticism ravaged the churches. Philip plied the Inquisition, which had been partially established by his father, and filling the country with Spanish soldiers, exterminated the heretics with fire and sword. Thousands fled for refuge from the monstrous extravagances of the monarch, and transferred to England the beautiful appliances of the Flanders manufactures. Belgium dwindled away, and could scarcely be said to be peopled. After the memorable victory of Ramillies, in 1706, the country again became subject to Austria, and having been several times conquered and re-conquered by the French, was ultimately, in 1796, incorporated with the first French Republic, and divided into departments. By this change Belgium secured many valuable privileges, and the introduction of an admirable public system, and equality in legislation. In 1815 the great battle of Waterloo was fought in the centre of Belgium. It may be here incidentally remarked, that so often has Belgium been the scene on which surrounding nations have fought their battles, that it has attained the soubriquet of the "Cock-pit of Europe." By the Congress of Vienna, Belgium was annexed to Holland to form the Kingdom of the Netherlands, which existed until the Revolution of 1830, when it became independent. The union of these two countries was at the best an impolitic affair. Differing in origin, language and religion, how could any union of sympathies take place? and the Belgians considered the terms unequal and oppressive. The overthrow of Charles X. at this period was the time chosen for revolt, and this was soon recognized as *une fait accompli* by the great powers of Europe. Since this, Belgium has made rapid strides, and in proportion to her territory now forms one of the wealthiest, most industrious, and talented of nations, and the position of the country is such as to secure it from a repetition of the despotic arbitration it has so lately been subject to. The Belgians have a king, but so limited his power and powerful the people, that he can do no harm.

## THE KINGDOM OF HOLLAND.

HOLLAND lies immediately north of Belgium, fronting to the west and north on the German Ocean, and is bounded east by Hanover and Rhenish Prussia, and south by Rhenish Prussia and Belgium. Its limits are between the latitudes of  $50^{\circ} 45'$  and  $53^{\circ} 28'$  N., and between the longitudes of  $3^{\circ} 23'$  and  $7^{\circ} 28'$  E. The greatest length of the country from north-east to south-west is about 190 miles; its greatest breadth from east to west 123 miles, and the area of its surface 15,890 square miles.

Holland, in the early ages, is represented to have been an extended swamp, alternately covered and abandoned by the ocean. The inhabitants then lived on the sandy elevations, and fared on the produce of the waters. The period when they began to protect themselves by dykes is not known, but for centuries they have successfully combatted the waves of the sea, and the result has been a present safety and high state of cultivation to this *amphibious* territory. A great part of Holland is from 30 to 40 feet below the water-mark of the coast, and at various times the sea has burst its barriers, and on these occasions the most disastrous effects have been produced. In connection with the building of dykes the draining of the country naturally presents itself, and consequently we find Holland intersected in every direction with canals and sluices, which answer the double means of draining and internal communication, and being lined with rows of trees, tend to beautify a most flat and uninteresting country.

Along the coast there is a line of sand-hills or downs, in some places so high as to shut out the view of the sea from the tops of the tallest spires. These appear to be formed by a natural process, which is still going on, and which is owing to the action of the winds on the dry sands, which are borne in clouds of dust for more than a mile inland. These downs, except at the mouths of the rivers, form a sufficient barrier, and it is only to such excepted places that the attention of the Dutch is principally directed. There the dykes or bulwarks of earth have been constructed, and are carefully kept in repair. Across the country in all directions low mounds have been raised to enclose sections of land or fields, called "polders," which are surrounded and intersected by ditches, into which the water runs, and from which it is drawn off by pumps, worked by wind-mills, and carried along the tops of the dykes to the main canals which intersect the country on a level with the sea.

Holland, as might naturally be supposed, has, in consequence of its superabundance of water and its unsheltered exposure to the sea-breeze, a very humid climate, and a foggy atmosphere. This is more the case in summer than winter, the latter season being cleared of its vapor by the prevailing east winds and frosty atmosphere. Notwithstanding, however, this excessive moisture, the health of the people does not materially suffer, but there are certain diseases specially attributable to the peculiar atmospheric condition of the country. The industry of the people is chiefly directed to the breeding and rearing of cattle, and vast pastures, dazzling with the richest verdures, furnish abundant and wholesome nourishment to thousands of animals. In the north, wheat, flax and madder are raised, and in the south, where agriculture has made the greatest progress, tobacco and different

kinds of fruit trees cover the fields. Of the total surface more than two-thirds is under cultivation; about 125,000 acres are covered with cities, roads, &c.; 250,000 acres by canals, rivers, &c.; and 1,935,000 by heaths, sea-shore, downs, peat-bogs, &c.

The great rivers of Holland are the Rhine, the Waal and the Meuse, all intimately connected. The RHINE enters Holland in a single stream, but soon divides into two great branches, the Rhine and the Waal, the latter of which joins the Meuse near Gorcum. The Rhine gives off another branch east of Arnheim, which joins the Yssel, and flows onward to the Zuyder-zee. It then flows westward and again divides; the branch called the old Rhine, flows past Utrecht and Leyden, and enters the sea by a sluice at Katwyk; while the other, under the name of the Lech, joins the Meuse eastward of Rotterdam, and forms between it and the Waal the island of Betwe, the ancient "Insula Batavorum." The MEUSE flows through Dutch Limburg and North Brabant, joins the Waal near Gorcum, and then divides into two principal channels, one of which flows onward to the sea by Rotterdam, while the other passes through the Biesbosch and Hollands-deep, and forms two estuaries between the islands of Schouwen and Voorn, divided by Goree and Over-Flackee.

The ZUYDER-ZEE is a great gulf, which penetrates far inland between North Holland, and Friesland, Overijssel and Gelderland on the east. The southern portion was originally a large lake, the barrier between which and the sea was broken through by an inundation in 1225. It is much encumbered with sand banks, and subject to violent storms. The DOLLERT, a similar inlet between Groningen and Hanover, was formed likewise by an irruption of the sea in 1277. In South Holland and Zeeland there are five estuaries communicating with the Meuse and the Scheldt.

The islands off the coast are chiefly accumulations of sand and alluvial deposits, and are very numerous. In Zeeland are the islands of Walcheren, Schouwen, North and South Beveland, Tholen, &c.; in South Holland, Goree, Over Flackee, Voorn, Beierland, Ysselmond, &c.; Texel, Vlieland, Ter-Schelling, Ameland, Schiermonnick, and Borkum, opposite the Zuyder-zee and the coasts of Friesland and Groningen; and within the Zuyder-zee, Wieringen, Urk, Schokland and Marken.

Lakes are numerous, but generally of small extent. HAARLAEMMER-MEER, or the Lake of Haarlaem, in North Holland, is, however, of considerable size, being 15 miles long and 8 in breadth. It communicates with the Zuyder-zee by the Y, and is everywhere navigable. It was formed by an inundation of the sea about four centuries ago, and is separated from the North Sea by a neck of land about five miles broad. BIESBOSCH, in North Brabant, is a lake of 36 square miles in extent, formed in 1491 by a similar irruption, which overwhelmed 72 villages and 100,000 persons. The marshes occur chiefly in North Holland, Friesland, Groningen, Drenthe and Overijssel; and some of them are very extensive. Several of them have been drained, and their beds are called "polders," one of the most considerable of which was once occupied by the Lake of Naarden.

In almost all the provinces the towns communicate by canals, as they do elsewhere by roads, and these canals are traversed by "treckschuyts," which pass to and fro at fixed hours. The "North, or Great Ship Canal," which unites Amsterdam with Nieuwdiep, is large enough for ships of war, being 125 feet wide at the top, 38 at the bottom, and 21 feet deep. It is

about 50 miles in length, and was designed to enable vessels sailing to and from Amsterdam to avoid the dangerous navigation of the Zuyder-zee. It is the very life stream of Amsterdam, as without it that city must have sunk into comparative insignificance. This avenue of commerce was commenced in 1819, and completed in 1824, at a cost of nearly £1,000,000 sterling. The canal of Zederik extends from Vianen, on the Leck, to Gorcum, on the Meuse, and shortens by eight days the passage between Amsterdam and Cologne; and the canal of Zuid-Williems-Waast connects Bois-le-Duc with Maestricht, and admits vessels of 800 tons burthen. The roads which are everywhere excellent and broad, run for miles in straight lines along the tops of the dykes, and are paved with small bricks set on edge, so as to be very smooth for carriages. They are usually planted with rows of trees. The general transport business, however, is done on the canals, which here form the chief thoroughfares. Railroads have been introduced. The principal now in operation are those between Amsterdam and the Hague, and between Amsterdam and Arnhem.

Holland contains two distinct people: the Hollanders or Dutch; and the Frisians who occupy Friesland and its islands. A few Walloons, of the Græco-Latin stock, inhabit Limburg and some other places. The Dutch, says Mr. W. Chambers, "are a sagacious and most respectable people. Their orderliness, industry and cleanliness are beyond all praise; they are at present, however, not an advancing race, or, on the whole, a thriving people. What may be the true cause of this it would perhaps be presumptuous in me to say. My impression is, that there is little genius or enterprise amongst them; at least they seem to have no idea of readily adopting or employing mechanical expedients with the view of enlarging the bounds of manufacturing industry, while their inordinant self-esteem as a nation, prevents them from imitating those who are fit to set them an example. Satisfied with their usages, their industry and all that belongs to them, they remain the same yesterday, to-day, and forever. Their towns never seem to grow any larger, their canals and roads are what they were a hundred years since, (?) and, excepting some little additional energy in education, I am not aware of any advance they are making on a general scale. In short, they are a nation in stereotype, a work upon which few or no corrections or improvements can be permitted."

Perfect freedom in religious worship is allowed to all. The majority, however, of the Dutch are Calvinists, with a regularly constituted ministry. The Lutherans are next in numbers; the Mennonites and Remonstrants are also numerous, but all these sects taken in the aggregate do not amount to one-half the number of Calvinists. The clergy of all sects are maintained by government; and the expenses of the universities of Leyden, Utrecht, and Groningen, are also defrayed by the state. These are resorted to by all sects, indiscriminately, whose theological studies are provided for, under professors of their own faith.

The Dutch system of education is excellent. The institution and regulation of primary schools was commenced under the Batavian Republic, in 1804, but it was not until 1814 that it was in full effect. The great object in view is to educate every child in the simpler branches of general knowledge. General and local inspectors and boards of management superintend the whole, and no teacher is allowed to exercise his profession until properly examined as to his competency. The better class of schools are conducted by teachers, at their own risks. The law does not compel parents to send



their children to school, but the poor are not allowed any relief from the public funds unless they do send them to the "Armen" or poor schools; and the result is, that there are none without education. Secular and religious education are entirely separated, the first being entrusted solely to the clergy.

The government is a constitutional monarchy. The king shares the legislative power with the "States General," which are divided into two chambers: the first consisting of from 40 to 60 members nominated for life by the king; the second of 116 deputies, elected by the people of the provinces for three years. These take the title of "Hoghen Moghen" or High and Mighty Lords, and are assembled once a year at least. Each province has its own "States," composed of members belonging to these orders, viz., the nobility, citizens, and the country population. The provincial states assemble once a year at least, or as often as convoked by the king. The government of the colonies is vested exclusively in the king.

The revenue is derived principally from a land tax, excise duties and customs. In amount it varies little from 70,000,000 florins. The public debt amounts to 1,253,974,457 florins, or about \$500,000,000, and the yearly interest to about \$18,000,000, or more than half the total revenue.

The army in time of peace consists of one regiment each of grenadiers and foot chasseurs; 10 of infantry; 2 each of heavy artillery, light dragoons, and lancers; 2 battalions of field, and 1 of volunteer and 3 of militia artillery; 1 corps of flying artillery; 2 companies of artillery workmen, 1 division of pontooneers, 1 battalion of artillery drivers, and 1 corps of sappers and miners, forming two battalions. The navy consists of 8 ships of the line, with 55 frigates and a number of smaller vessels, mounting altogether 2,274 guns; besides, one exercise ship, 6 war steamers, 6 transports, &c. The number of vessels in commission in 1848 were 48, carrying 302 guns, and building and in ordinary 86, or in all 134. The merchant marine consists of 1,528 ships, and 241,676 tons.

Holland is not a manufacturing country. Some linens are made, however, as also woollen and cotton articles, but chiefly for domestic consumption. Tapes and other smaller wares are made at Haarlaem, and bleaching done to some extent. Sugar refining is exclusively carried on in Amsterdam. Gin, of favorite brands, is made at Schneidam and other places, and the breweries are also large and numerous. Ship and boat building seems to be at the present time the chief branch of manufacturing industry.

The coast fisheries and the whale fisheries employ many seamen; and there are altogether about 80 vessels employed in the herring fisheries, most of them belonging to Vlaardingen and Maas-Sluis, two places on the Meuse, below Rotterdam.

One of the most profitable branches of the Dutch industry, is the growth and pressing of the seed-oils.

Neither so flourishing as in the sixteenth century, nor yet so inconsiderable as in 1814, the commerce of Holland is still far from its natural capacity. The principal imports consist of grain, salt, wines, timber, lean cattle for fattening, millinery, and iron and other raw materials of manufacture, besides sundry manufactured articles for the commission trade. The latter is a very important branch of Dutch commerce, as well as that of exchange. The flower trade still flourishes. The exports are agricultural and dairy produce, salted provisions, spices and other East India staples, madder, tobacco, flowers (bulbs,) oil, gin, seeds, hides, borax, and camphor.

The Dutch trading towns are, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Middelburg, Flushing, Briel, Dort, Enkhuizen, Zieriksee, Groningen and Utrecht.

The kingdom is divided into ten administrative divisions, called provinces, which are sub-divided into districts, and the latter into cantons. Parts of Limburg and Luxemburg have lately been added, but Luxemburg is not a part of the Kingdom of Holland, and only belongs to the king in his capacity of Grand Duke. It is properly a part of the German Confederacy.

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Area in sq. miles.</i>	<i>Popula- tion.</i>	<i>Pop. to sq. mile.</i>	<i>Chief towns.</i>
NORTH HOLLAND.....	967.....	448,328.....	465.....	Haarlaem.
SOUTH HOLLAND.....	1,185.....	532,394.....	447.....	The Hague.
ZEALAND.....	677.....	152,847.....	225.....	Middelburg.
NORTH BRABANT.....	1,997.....	382,154.....	192.....	Bois-le-Duc.
UTRECHT.....	587.....	146,029.....	249.....	Utrecht.
GELDERLAND.....	1,833.....	350,288.....	186.....	Arnhem.
OVERYSSEL.....	1,237.....	200,718.....	162.....	Zwoll.
DRENTHE.....	986.....	73,777.....	75.....	Assen.
GRONINGEN.....	863.....	177,951.....	207.....	Groningen.
FRIESLAND.....	1,212.....	231,137.....	191.....	Leuwarden.
LIMBURG.....	919.....	198,143.....	215.....	Maestricht.
Total of Holland.....	12,513.....	2,893,766.....	232.....	THE HAGUE.
LUXEMBURG.....	1,156.....	160,680.....	139.....	Luxemburg.

The chief cities and towns are, Amsterdam, the Hague, Rotterdam, Groningen, &c. AMSTERDAM, the principal city of the kingdom, though not the capital, is situated on the right bank of the river Y or Ai, at the mouth of the Amstel, which divides it into two parts. It is besides intersected by many canals, which form upwards of 90 islands, communicating by 290 bridges, some of stone and some of wood. The streets, almost all straight, are built along the canals, are well paved, have foot-paths, and are well lighted at night. The two finest, called the Heeren-gracht and the Kaiser-gracht, in the middle of the city, are magnificent, and of considerable length, but the houses are all built of brick, and painted in various colors. Amsterdam is the seat of the general administration of the marine, whose vast magazines and ship-building yards are truly remarkable. It contains a great number of scientific and literary institutions. The Stadt-house, now the Royal Palace, is a magnificent modern structure, and the Town-House, the East and West India Houses, the Exchange, Arsenal, Churches, &c., present individually specimens of the best styles, and as a whole give to the city an important aspect.

The prosperity of Amsterdam dates from 1648, when the Scheldt was closed to commerce, and its prosperity has declined since the re-opening of that river. The canals, and the railroad which connect it with the distant parts of the country and with other states, will probably restore its far waned fortunes. The population exceeds 220,000. Commerce is the prevailing pursuit of the citizens, there being few manufactures here or in the other parts of Holland. The vicinity is truly charming, being for miles around one vast garden, blooming with every variety of flowers, of which the Dutch flora is so redundant.

HAARLAEM, the capital of the province of North Holland, 12 miles west of Amsterdam, is a large but thinly peopled town, of some 22,000 inhabitants. It has many fine public buildings. Haarlaem is noted for its bleacheries, wax-works, tissues of wool and silk, type-foundries, and particularly its gardens, which produce immense quantities of flowers, the material of a

considerable trade. The invention of printing is disputed between this town and Mentz. "Haarlaem Oil," highly celebrated throughout the world as a domestic medicament, is manufactured here on a large scale, but the greatest part of that sold in the United States is made by that speculative class who are ever ready to feed on the miseries of humanity. This, a compound of benzoin and other aromatic gums dissolved in alcohol.

The HAGUE, called by the Dutch "S'GRAVENHAGEN," and by the French "La Haye," is situated near the sea-coast, 32 miles south-west of Amsterdam, and is reckoned one of the best built cities of Europe. It is the metropolis of the kingdom, and seat of government. The canals and streets are arranged as in Amsterdam. The king's palace is more remarkable for its size than its beauty. The public buildings, generally, are well-built and substantial, and not devoid of ornament. The city has several manufactures. Population, 66,000. The Castle of Ryswick, near The Hague, is memorable on account of the treaty of 1697, which was signed therein. Several beautiful villages are in the vicinity, and afford pleasant summer retreats for the citizens.

LEYDEN, (the "Lugdunum Batavorum" of the Romans,) is a very ancient city, upon the old Rhine, about six miles from the sea. It consists of islands, intersected by canals, over which innumerable bridges are thrown, and along which the buildings are erected. It is surrounded by walls and ditches, opening to the country by eight gates. Leyden is noted for its university, founded in 1575. Population, 35,000. West of the city a cut has been made to carry the Rhine forward to the sea, which it now enters by a sluice near the village of Katwyk-op-zee. The country round Leyden is the most fertile in the lower part of Holland, and is termed the Rhineland.

ROTTERDAM, on the north bank of the Meuse, 20 miles from the sea, is, after Amsterdam, the most populous and most commercial city in the kingdom, and the most advantageously situated. The largest vessels not only safely navigate the river, but are brought into the heart of the city, by means of canals. It communicates with other parts of the kingdom by the canals, and with Germany by the Rhine. The Indian and Chinese trade employs about one-third the annual tonnage. Except the Stadthouse, which is a recent structure, there are no remarkable public buildings in Rotterdam; but the quay, called the "Boomtges," presents a long line of handsome houses. Population, about 80,000.

SCHNEIDAM, with 10,000 inhabitants, is chiefly known for the vastness of its gin distilleries; and DORT, on an island, is celebrated for the synod held therein in the 17th century, the object of which was to put down Arminianism.

MIDDELBURG, the capital of Zeeland, is situated near the centre of the island of Walcheren, and communicates with the sea by a large navigable canal. It is a busy commercial city. FLUSHING, on the south side of Walcheren, is a strongly-fortified town, with a fine harbor, magnificent docks, vast building yards, and extensive magazines.

BOIS-LE-DUC, (called by the Dutch "Hertogens-bosch,") the capital of North Brabant, is a considerable town, of some 15,000 inhabitants, situated on the Dommel, and is noted for its fine church of St. John, its manufactures of ribbons and musical instruments. BREDA is a fortified town, on the Merk, and is the seat of the Royal Military Academy, in which 22 professors teach the various departments necessary to form the soldier.

UTRECHT, (the "Ultra-Trajectum ad Rhenum," of the Romans,) is a

very ancient city, situated upon a branch of the old Rhine, and is of importance for its industry, its literary establishments, and its trade and commerce. As usual, it is intersected by canals. The university possesses a rich library and a fine collection of objects of natural history, with other valuable adjuncts. Population, 34,000. In the vicinity is ZEYST, a village, where there is a community of Moravians, whose industry renders it flourishing.

GRONINGEN is a large and well-built town, with 24,000 inhabitants. It contains some fine buildings, and several literary establishments, of which the university and botanic garden are the principal.

MAESTRICHT, on the Meuse, is an important fortified town. In the neighboring hill of St. Peter's are immense quarries, or underground galleries, said to occupy a space of 18 miles long by 6 miles wide, and crossing in every direction, so as to form an intricate labyrinth. Population, about 18,000.

LUXEMBURG, the capital of the Grand Duchy, is a town of 11,000 inhabitants, and is reckoned one of the strongest fortresses in the world. It is one of the fortresses of the Germanic Confederation; the Prussians have the right of forming a part of its garrison; but the King of Holland, as Grand Duke, appoints the governor and military commandant, subject to the approbation of the Germanic Diet.

The Dutch have some considerable colonies in the several divisions of the world, the principal of which are:

In ASIA—Java, and part of Sumatra; Amboyna, Banda, Macassar, Ternate, and Timor.

In AFRICA—Several forts on the coast of Guinea.

In AMERICA—Surinam, in South America; and Curaçoa, Aruba, Buen-Ayre, St. Eustatius, Saba, and part of St. Martin, in the West Indies. The population of the colonies is estimated at 6,500,000; of whom 6,440,000 are of the Malay race, 110,000 Chinese, and 10,000 negroes.

The early history of Holland, to the time of Charles V., is so intimately blended with that of Belgium, that a separate account need not be given in this place—they shared the same fate, were the same people, and endured the same prosperity and reverses. From the Duke of Burgundy the States passed into the hands of Maximilian of Austria, and subsequently became Spanish provinces, and remained under the Spanish crown until the middle of the 17th century; but on the conclusion of peace, after the battle of Ramillies, in 1706, they were assigned to Austria. In 1741, the French captured the southern provinces, and held them until 1748; Austria again lost the Netherlands in 1792, and in 1794 they were again in the hands of the French, and were held by them until the restoration of the Bourbons in France. At this period Belgium and Holland were united into the kingdom of the Netherlands, and the Prince of Orange raised to the crown. In 1830, the Belgic provinces revolted, and became an independent state; and Leopold, Prince of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, was elevated to the new throne. Nothing remarkable has since occurred; and it is probable that this nation may plod on, as it now does, in a dull routine, for ages yet to come.

## THE GERMAN CONFEDERATION.

THE states composing this great confederation, all independent and distinct, except so far as they have delegated powers to the central government, extend from sea to sea across the middle of Western Europe, between  $45^{\circ} 30'$  and  $55^{\circ}$  N. latitude, and between  $5^{\circ} 48'$  and  $19^{\circ} 20'$  E. longitude. The greatest length of Germany is 678 miles, and its greatest breadth 600. The superficial area is about 246,795 square miles. This territory is bounded on the north by the Baltic Sea, Denmark, and the North Sea or German Ocean; on the east by Hungary, Poland, and Prussia; on the south by Switzerland, Italy, the Adriatic Sea, and Illyria; and on the west by France, Belgium, and Holland.

The southern and central parts of Germany are traversed by ranges of mountains in every direction, separated only by narrow valleys, while to the north the elevation subsides into a wide sandy plain, little above the sea-level. The Tyrol is wholly occupied by branches of the Alps, presenting many of the peculiarities of Switzerland. To the north of these mountain districts, the Danube extends almost across the whole length of the country, declining from 2,000 feet elevation at its source, to 530 feet where it enters Hungary. The Hercynian and Bohemian mountains form the northern boundary of the Danubian Valley, and though inferior in height to the Alps, form a series of high valleys and tablelands, which fill up the central portions, and in their eastern prolongation form the singular valley of Bohemia, which presents the appearance of having been a lake before it was drained by bursting its mountain barriers. Northward of these the country sinks into plains, the length of which extends, without interruption, through Silesia, Lusatia, Brandenburg, Pomerania, Mecklenburg, Holstein, Hanover, and the lower part of Westphalia, where it assumes the appearance of a vast heath or morass, an appearance, indeed, which it exhibits in other places. The great rivers, the Oder, the Elbe, the Weser, and the Rhine, with their tributaries, drain this extensive region. To the west of the Elbe scarcely a tree appears, but the level tracts are covered with heath and juniper. To the east the country is more sandy, and covered with pines, interspersed, however, with extensive plats of fertile soil. The plain of Saxony, of which Leipzig is the centre, is more elevated, and has a more fruitful soil. Middle Germany is much diversified by picturesque scenery, and abounds with verdant and well-wooded valleys, which are watered by clear streams. The banks of the Meyn, the Funda, and the Mozelle, are remarkable for their varied scenery, and the valley of the Rhine unites the grandeur of a fine landscape with the appearance of a highly fertile country. In the elevated plains of Bavaria the soil is more cold, but generally productive. In the Austrian territories the plains are confined by the Alps; but are equally fertile, while they are as deep, and sometimes as narrow as those of Switzerland.

Within the confederate territory there are 60 navigable rivers. The DANUBE rises in the Black Forest, and takes hence a course due east, receiving numerous tributaries, and passes into Hungary at Presburg, near which place it receives the drainage of Moravia through the March. The DRAVE and SAVE also rise in Southern Germany; and the ADIGE, which

flows south, has its sources in the Rhætian Alps. The ELBE rises from numerous affluents on the north side of the Bohemian mountains, and drains the valley of Bohemia. After escaping through the Sudetic mountains, it flows over the plains of Northern Germany to the ocean. The WESER and its large affluents pursue a similar course. The ODER drains the north-east, and reaches the sea in a little stream, 20 miles below Stettin. The RHINE, in the west, rises in Switzerland, and on leaving that territory shoots in a northern direction, receiving in its course the Meyn and the Moselle, and passes into Holland, and ultimately finds the sea through several channels. These are all magnificent rivers, and give to the country commercial advantages which it otherwise could not enjoy. The minor rivers are too numerous to name, and they are less important. The lakes of Germany are all small; and except the Lake of Constance, on the border of Switzerland, useless.

The geology of Germany is extremely varied in its several parts. South of the Rhætian Alps the rocks are of primary formation, and form rugged and fantastic masses, which at a distance look like castles in ruins. This formation overlies porphyry. The Alps of Salzburg, which extend to the Danube, are composed of granitic and primitive rocks. Their tops are lost in the clouds. To the west of the lower course of the Ens are found fine marbles and rock-salt; to the east, mines of silver, lead, iron, and coal. Upon the right bank of the Danube, the low plains are covered with alluvium and detrital matter. Upon the adjoining slopes of the Carpathian and Sudetic mountains there are isolated basins of coal formation. In Silesia the alluvial plains abound in a black clay. The constitution of the Bohemian mountains is essentially different in several respects, and small grained granite, micaceous rocks, slate, schist, and sienite, form the Bohmewall. Forests occupy their tops, and their bases are covered with pools and marshes. Some of the mountains are of volcanic origin, and contain free-stone and basalt, surrounded with lime-stone full of fossil shells. The porphyries of the Erzgebirge have undergone some violent upheaving. Many mineral springs issue from these hills, all from their character indicating igneous action. Near Eger is the Kammerberg, a conical mountain covered with lava and scorice. The substructure, however, of the Erzgebirge is granitic, and its mineral wealth, particularly on the Saxon side, is of such importance, as to have given the chain the name it bears, which means metaliferous mountains. In the valley of the Danube extend vast tracts of the epoch of the Paris Basin, and large deposits of extinct animals are found in the alluvial soils. The granitic rocks of the Black Forest support in some places limestone of the secondary period; the spurs which extend to the north are composed of old sand-stone; the slopes that overlook the Rhine are formed of soil posterior to the chalk, and the flanks of the whole chain are covered with thick forests.

To the north of the Meyn the hills are composed of primitive limestone; to the east and west, of volcanic deposits, which form on the one side the chain of the Vogelberg and Westerwald, and on the other the basaltic group of Eifel. The constitution of the formations now entirely changes, and to the north and west all the plains which descend to the North Sea are covered with immense beds of sedimentary deposits, or with beds of sand overlying chalk, limestone, gypsum, &c., which mix at last along the shores of the Baltic, with the sandy and marshy soils of Pomerania. The great plain has every appearance of having been at no very distant epoch

covered by the sea, and in many places its surface still consists of bare sand

The soil of Germany is generally productive. The plains of the north, indeed, contain much waste land ; but along the rivers there are rich and fertile soils, where the most abundant crops are raised. There is, also, in the mountain country south, much barren land ; but the beautiful valleys and small plains among the hills rival the fertility of the best alluvial soils of the north. In general the soil of the north is heavy, and in the south light ; the former is best adapted for corn, and the latter for the vine. The best soils are found in the middle districts, between the mountains of the south and the northern plain. In Bohemia, Silesia, Franconia, Saxony, and on the Rhine, the proportion of good soil is much greater than in the north or south.

The mines of Germany are as various as they are rich in products ; and are wrought with much skill and economy. Precious stones are found in many places ; rock-crystal, amethysts, and topazes, are plentiful in Bavaria ; chalcedony, agate, petchstein, and porcelain-jasper, in Bohemia ; barytes in many parts, and abundance of building stone and clays everywhere. Fossil coal is found in extensive beds. Gold is procured by washing,—though only in small quantities, in Salzburg in Bohemia, in the Rammelsberg, and in Silesia. Silver and cinnabar are raised in the mines of the Erzgebirge in Saxony. Iron, copper, tin, lead, calamine, bismuth, cobalt, nickel, titanium, arsenic, and almost every other mineral, are more or less abundant. In consequence of this abundance, mineralogy has become a branch of a liberal education.

Mineral springs in every variety are scattered over Germany. The Thermal Springs of Aix-la-Chapel, Pyrmont, Carlsbad, Baden, &c., on the Rhine, attract crowds of visitors. Those of Ischel-Baden, near Vienna, and many more, though less frequented, are in no wise inferior. The acidulous springs of Selters, Driburg, and Robitsch ; the bitter waters of Seidschutz, Seidlitz, &c. ; and the long series of salt springs which follow the base of the northern Alps, attest the richness of the understrata in metallic deposits.

The extent of Germany, no less than its various elevations, naturally produce great variations in climate. On the northern plains the temperature is not cold, but the atmosphere is humid and inconstant. They are exposed to the fogs and the tempests from two seas. Central Germany enjoys a more clear and equable climate. The mountains form a barrier against the effects of the oceanic influences, but the elevation renders the air colder than a climate of latitude alone would indicate. The climate, however, of this region, is finer than any other in Germany ; and is the most salubrious and agreeable of any in Europe. The Alpine regions of the south comprise every variety of climate, in accordance with elevation and protection. The air is generally raw and cold in the exposed elevations, while in the plains and valleys a climate equal to that of the finest parts of Italy, is enjoyed.

Forest trees hold a first rank in the vegetable products of Germany, and not only supply the wants of the people, but afford timber for export. The oak abounds most in the central regions. The other trees are beech, ash, mountain ash, poplar, pine, and fir ; and in sheltered spots, walnut, chestnut, almond, and peach trees, thrive luxuriantly. The coniferous trees are

most common in the sandy plains watered by the Oder and the Elbe ; but we look in vain for the hard pine and the lofty fir of Scandinavia. To these forests succeed vast wastes, covered with heath ; and the remaining part of Northern Germany consists of extensive meadows. In the little hills, however, of eastern Holstein, of maritime Mecklenburg, and of Rugen, the vegetation is different, and the oak re-appears on a more fruitful soil.

In the south vegetation is governed by the topographical character of the country. The beech and maple grow so high as 5,500 feet, and the *pinus-umbra* still higher. The birch is a common tree on the declivities. In Austria, the transition from eternal snow to the region of vineyards and olive groves, is remarkably rapid. The culture of the vine ceases at the height of 2,000 feet ; that of wheat at 4,000 ; and at a greater height the country is generally covered with pasturage and coniferous trees.

Every species of grain is cultivated ; but some localities are preferable for the several crops. Wheat and barley are most common in the south ; maize in Austria ; buckwheat in the sandy soils of the north ; and manna, or "*festuca fluitans*," is cultivated on the banks of the Oder. The potato is grown extensively in the north, and few countries are so plentifully supplied with excellent roots. The culture of garden vegetables has been carried to a great degree of perfection. Hops find a genial soil ; and tobacco, of an inferior description, however, is largely grown. Madder and dyer's weld are partially cultivated. Hemp and lint are staple growths, and furnish material for domestic manufactures.

Vines were originally planted by the Romans along the river bottoms, where they still produce wines as highly esteemed as those of any other country. The most valued is the "*Hock*," from the vineyards of Hockheim, where the best is made. The next in value are the wines of the Meyn, and the Danube ; and those of the Tyrol and of the Moselle. The Bohemian wines are inferior. The secondary wines are used by the people as a common beverage ; and such only as are suitable for preservation are exported. Of olive oil, neither the quantity nor quality is important ; the production being confined to a small district in the south. Great quantities of rape seed and linseed oils are expressed ; and for the more common purposes, the oil of herrings, seals, and other aquatic animals, is very abundant.

Various wild animals yet inhabit the forests. Wild deer and wild swine are very numerous in many parts of the country, and foxes, lynxes, &c., still afford sport to the country people. A small black species of bear is found in the Tyrol, and a few wolves in the Trans-Rhenish provinces. In some of the mountains the beaver is met with, and some other animals, chiefly valuable for their fur. Myriads of mice are found in Saxony, and do incredible damage to the fields.

The German heavy horse is well adapted for draught and warlike purposes, but is not at all suitable for pleasure. Asses are not common, and except in the Tyrol, and near the Harz mountains, mules are unknown. There are various breeds of cattle. The handsomest are those of the maritime provinces. The Hungarian and Swiss breeds prevail in different parts. The mixture, however, of these, is the best for the dairy. Attempts have long been made to improve the German stock, but with little success. The German sheep is a mixture of the original coarse-woolled race and a breed from the Ardennes. In part of Illyria they have the sheep of Padua,



and the fine-woolled sheep of Spain have been largely introduced. Goats are common, especially in the hilly states, and swine are the most important stock in Bavaria, Hanover, Westphalia, &c. Domesticated birds, but especially ducks and geese, are very plentiful. Wild birds from the ocean, and game, are also abundant. Besides these, the smaller birds, as canaries, and bull-finches, are seen in every section. Bee-rearing in Lusatia is a productive employment. The seas which wash the shores are prolific in fish, and the domestic fisheries give a living to a great number of the people.

The inhabitants of Germany are of three essentially different families: the Deutsch, the Slavonic, and the Græco-Latin. The Deutsch, in several families, inhabit more than four-fifths of the country, and the Slavonic, comprising the "Tchekkes" of Bohemia, the "Slovaques" of Moravia and Silesia; the "Annaques" and other tribes in Moravia, the "Polonais" of Silesia, the "Cassoubes" of Northern Pomerania, &c., comprise very nearly the other fifth. The Græco-Latin family is confined to the Italian portions of the Tyrol, Friuli, and Trieste, and the left bank of the Rhine, and some few other places. Besides all these there are some 300,000 Jews.

The pervading language is the Deutsch, and this is the legal language of the country. The High and Low Germans speak languages somewhat different, but are very similar in habits, character and disposition. The Low German, or as it is called, the Platt Deutsch, prevails among the people of Lower Saxony, Westphalia, Holstein, &c.; but as the church services and education are conducted in High Deutsch, that language is known as well, though not preferred, as their own dialect. In the south, where High Deutsch alone is spoken, the peasantry use a dialect scarcely more intelligible to those unaccustomed to its use, than the Low Deutsch. The Slavonic people are found to the east of the Danube; they retain their Slavonic dialects, but with a great mixture of German words. The Slavonians are inferior in civilization, but industrious, and much attached to their homes.

Germany, especially the northern part of the confederation, contains one of the best educated and most intelligent communities in Europe. The parochial schools are open to all, and few Germans can be found unable to read and write, and understand the first rules of arithmetic. The classical schools, denominated gymnasiums, pedagogiums and lyceums, are found in almost all the large towns. The universities are numerous and well endowed; and have long been famous for their learning and efficiency. Besides these, there are in all the capitals institutions for instructing pupils in the several professions and national economy. Learned societies spread over all the country, and libraries and museums afford means to those engaged in the pursuit of knowledge. The press of Germany has long been famous, and German authors, for research and talent, head the grand column of literature.

Catholicism, Lutherism and Calvinism, are equally the religions of Germany, and enjoy in all the states perfect freedom of worship. For several years past, however, the two latter have been united under the denomination of the Evangelical Church. About one-half of the population is Catholic, about two-fifths belong to the Evangelical Church, and the remainder is divided by the Calvinists, Moravians, Mennonites, Jews, &c. The religions professed by the states respectively are noted in the table, (p. 22.)

The states composing the confederation present every variety of government, from democracy to autocracy. The four free cities are republics,

Bavaria, Wirtemberg, Baden, Grand-Ducal Hessen, Nassau, Brunswick, Hanover, and Saxony, are constitutional monarchies, each with two chambers; electoral Hessen, Sachsen-Weimar, Sachsen-Gotha, Sachsen-Meiningen, Lichtenstein, Waldeck, are also constitutional monarchies, each with one chamber only; and Hohenzollern, Lippe, Mecklenburg, Schwartzburg, Reuss, Anhalt, and Sachsen-Altenburg, are monarchies feebly limited by provincial states. Oldenburg and Kniphausen are absolute monarchies. The revision, however, to which the German constitutions are now being submitted, will probably vary this arrangement, and bring all the states under more democratic influences. The governments of the Austrian, Prussian, and Danish states, will be mentioned under their respective heads.

These several states are united into one confederation. The experience of an entire generation, says the preamble to the project of the fundamental law, as presented to the German Diet, in its sitting of the 26th April, 1848, having demonstrated that the want of unity in the political existence of Germany, has engendered an internal disorganization in the German nation, and a depreciation of the liberty of the people, as well as rendered it powerless towards without, the German confederation will be replaced by a constitution on national unity. The basis of this unity constitutes all the several states henceforth a federal empire, guaranteeing to each its own independence, in every thing, except so much as is delegated to the central government. The following departments are exclusively under the control of the Imperial power, viz: international and foreign representation, consequently the right of treaties, and all diplomatic relations to that effect; the right of declaring war or peace; the army and militia; the fortresses; the navy and armed sea-ports; customs and postages (to be uniform throughout Germany;); internal communication and telegraphs; brevets of invention; legislation in the domain of public and civil law, in so much as required for the complete development of the unity of Germany, especially a law on a uniform system of currency, weights, and measures; right of disposal over all revenues proceeding from customs, post-offices, and of those revenues or other receipts of the empire (taxes, sums derived from concessions, &c.,) with the right of imposing additional taxes on the states.

The whole of the Imperial power is concentrated in the supreme chief of the empire, and in the Imperial Diet; and the administration of justice is invested in an imperial tribunal. The executive resides at Frankfort-on-the-Meyn, and has, among other powers, that of convoking, adjourning, closing, or dissolving the Diet; he appoints and accredits envoys and consuls; concludes treaties with foreign states, and superintends treaties between the several states; he is personally inviolable and irresponsible, but all his decrees, to be binding, must be countersigned by a responsible minister.

The Diet consists of two chambers: an Upper and Lower Chamber. The Upper Chamber is constituted of 200 members, viz: the reigning princes or their substitutes; delegates from the free towns, and councillors of the empire, elected by the different states for 12 years, one third being renewed every four years. Population is the basis of this representation. In states delegating only one councillor he is elected by the state diet, and in the free towns by the legislative bodies, and in those states delegating more than one, one-half is appointed by the diet and the other by the governments. Councillors must be natives of the state by which they are appointed, and 40 years of age. The following is the present apportionment:

Austria.....	24	Sachsen-Coburg-Gotha ...	2	Waldeck.....	1
Prussia .....	24	Sachsen-Weimar .....	2	Reuss (elder).....	1
Bavaria .....	12	Sachsen-Meiningen .....	2	Reuss (younger) .....	1
Saxony .....	8	Oldenburg and Kniphausen	2	Lippe-Schauenberg .....	1
Hanover .....	8	Mechlenburg-Strelitz ....	1	Lippe-Detmold.....	1
Wurtemberg .....	8	Anhalt-Dessau .....	1	Hessen-Homburg.....	1
Baden .....	8	Anhalt-Bernberg .....	1	Lichenstein.....	1
Electoral Hessen .....	6	Anhalt-Koethen.....	1	Lauenburg .....	1
Grand Ducal Hessen ....	6	Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt.	1	Lubeck .....	1
Schleswig-Holstein .....	6	Schwartzburg-Sonder-	1	Frankfort.....	1
Mechlenburg-Schwerin ..	6	hausen .....	1	Bremen .....	1
Luxemburg .....	2	Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen	1	Hamburg .....	1
Brunswick .....	2	Hohenzollern-Hechingen .	1		
Nassau .....	2				

The Lower Chamber consists of the deputies of the people, elected for a period of six years—one-third renewed every two years. One deputy is returned for every 100,000 of population; those states, however, of which the population is under that number return one, and for every excess above 50,000, and below 100,000 more, two deputies. The deputies are elected immediately from and by the people. The election laws, however, are ulteriorly left to the states, which will decide whether or not the elections be direct or indirect. The councillors and deputies will receive salaries and travelling expenses. Each member of both houses, after election or deputization, becomes a representative of the empire, and is not bound to instructions. The sessions of the diet are annually held at Frankfort, and all proceedings are public.

The imperial court of judicature consists of 21 judges, who are appointed for life, one-third by the executive, one-third by the Upper, and one-third by the Lower House. The judges elect their President and Vice President. The court sits at Nuremberg, and all proceedings are public. The competency of the court extends to the following points, viz: political and legal contentions between the states and princes; disputes on the order of succession, competency and regency; private complaints against princes; disputes between the government of states and their diets; all complaints against the fiscal department of the empire; accusations against ministers of the empire, &c., &c.

The empire guarantees to the people a popular representation and ministerial responsibility; free municipal institutions; independence of the judiciary and open courts; trial by jury; equality of state and communal taxation; a national guard; the right of assembling peaceably; right of petition; freedom of the press; secrecy of letters; security against arbitrary arrests and domiciliary visits; the right of residing at will, acquiring property, and following any profession a man may think proper to follow; the right of emigration; freedom of science; religious liberty, freedom of conscience, and equality of all confessions as regards civil and political rights; the liberty of advancing the development of the people, as well of the races that are not Germanic as of the Germans themselves, according to their language, by the same privileges as regards education and internal administration.

The constitution of the imperial army will be provided for by special law. At present each state furnishes a contingent according to its representation, the whole amounting to about 300,000 men. The federal fortresses are those of Luxemburg, Mentz and Landau. The Prussians have the right to furnish a part of that of Luxemburg, but the king of Holland, as Grand Duke, appoints the governor and military commandant. The garrison of Mentz is furnished by Austria, Prussia, and the Hessians; and Landau is

garrisoned by Bavaria. The diet is charged to provide such organic institutions and defensive means as the safety of the empire may require. A navy is to be immediately collected and appointed for service, and in defence of the whole nation. Its constitution must be the result of long labor, but there is no doubt but that the empire is sufficiently provided with men and means to elevate Germany into a first rate naval, as it is already a military power.

Up to the present date the greater part of the lands of Germany have been held by feudal tenures. The possessors of the soil, of whom in every state the sovereign is by far the greatest, have under them a species of customary tenants called subjects, (*Unterthänen*), who have the cultivation of the common fields divided into small portions, without the intervention of fences. As soon as the corn is removed from the field the lord has the right of pasture; and owing to these circumstances it is impossible to deviate from an ancient practice, by which the different portions of the common land must be devoted to different kinds of crops at specific periods. The rotation almost universally presented and known as the three-crop-culture, consists of a fallow, succeeded by two crops of grain. The fallow, however, generally bears a crop, which is usually either flax, peas or potatoes, and in consequence of this the land is never properly cleared of weeds. To this fallow crop succeeds winter corn, either wheat or rye; in the north the proportion of the latter to the former is as four to one, and in many parts, especially in Bavaria, ten to one. In the southern states the two kinds of grain are nearly equally cultivated. To the winter corn succeeds barley or oats, as the land is better adapted to the one or the other, or as may have been settled *between the ancestors of the present lords and their tenants in remote periods*. By this mode of cultivation the earth yields but a small increase. The tenants can keep but little live stock, and, therefore, make but little manure. The live-stock they do keep is usually fed in winter on straw, and the addition recently of potatoes with a small portion of corn, and what dung they do produce is of a very weak quality. These tenants are commonly holders of small portions of land, which in many instances is necessarily divided at their decease among all their children; and thus the evil of the cottage system of small farms is clearly experienced. The villages are crowded with little proprietors, who have not either the conventional or the pecuniary power to improve the soil; who live in a state inferior to laborers, and who, from the smallness of their farms, can only obtain subsistence by living on the cheapest diet, which of late, as in Ireland, is principally potatoes. Under this system the number of husbandmen increases rapidly; they form soldiers, and when called out by the military conscriptions of their provinces, are placed in a better situation than when living on their farms.

The only well-cultivated farms in Germany are those kept in hand by the great lords, who, from their large stocks of cattle, make manure sufficient to enrich their soils. Otherwise the farms of Germany, although the soil possesses a rare fecundity, are badly managed, and yield comparatively little—not more than five-eighths the crops of England, or half the crops of the western United States. From the poorer classes eating nothing but rye or potatoes, and from having three-fourths of its population employed in agriculture, Germany is enabled to export corn in most years; but when an unpropitious season occurs, the distress is dreadful, and is increased by the smallness of the states, and the difficulty of transit from one to the other—an evil which was lamentably felt in 1817 and in 1847.

The land of Germany produces little beyond the national consumption, except wines, flax, and wool. The quality of the German wines is much inferior to those of France, and the quantity much less. The annual product is stated at two millions of pipes, of 100 gallons each; but a very small part of this finds a foreign market. Flax frequently forming, as before stated, the fallow crop, is important from the employment it affords during the long cold nights of winter to the female members of the peasant's family, and from the trade it creates in the export of yarn and linen cloth. Wool is generally the property of the lord; and its annual clip is frequently the principal revenue derived from extensive possessions. This has induced many to pay great attention to improvement of the staple; and much of it, especially that from Saxony, is superior to the merino of Spain. It is within the last twenty years that the extension of the breed of the fine-woolled sheep has taken place. Those who feel interested in German agriculture will find much valuable information on the subject in the "Report of the United States' Commissioner of Patents, for 1847," p. 239-348, written by Charles L. Fleischmann, Esq.

As a manufacturing country, Germany is pre-eminent, and can supply itself with by far the greater part of all the commodities it needs. Every town, of moderate population, has its woollen, linen, cotton, silk, and iron workshops. Few of these, however, are conducted on a large scale, and, consequently, that minute division of labor, which is so essential to perfection and cheapness of articles, is entirely wanting. Linens are the most valuable products, and are made from the coarse fabrics of Westphalia, which are used for negro clothing, to the finest shirting and table linen of Silesia and Saxony. Woollens of all kinds are made, and sufficient for consumption. The cassimeres and Vigonia cloths of the Prussian provinces of the Rhine, are preferred in all markets. The cotton manufactures have increased; but not so rapidly as those of other staples. The most considerable districts for these kinds of goods are:—Saxony, the Prussian provinces of Juliers, Berg, and Cleves; and along the banks of the Ens, in the Austrian dominions. The chief silk establishments are in Vienna, at Roveredo in the Tyrol, at Cologne, and at Berlin. Leather, iron, and steel, and wares prepared from them, are made at home. Porcelain and common earthenware are well made; but the best comes from the royal factories of Berlin and Dresden. The glass-ware of Bohemia, though inferior, is that in common use, not only throughout Germany, but in many other parts of the world. Paper is an article very inferior in quality, but it is largely manufactured. In the preparation of chemicals the Germans are excellent. The minor manufactures are too various to indicate. They consist principally of musical, mathematical, surgical, and optical instruments; with watches and clocks, wooden toys, and plaited straw, in all of which a peculiar superiority is discernible. Most of the trades of Germany are fettered by the laws of the guilds, to which the masters have hitherto been obliged to belong; and this has acted as an impediment to their arriving at that perfection the genius of the people is capable of. The recent constitution, however, abolishes all prescriptive rights, and allows every one to follow his own trade and calling without molestation.

Besides these branches of industry, we may notice also the immense produce of the press, so important in Saxony, Hanover, Wurtemberg, and Bavaria, where very small towns rival in this respect some of the largest cities in Europe, London and Paris excepted. Of these, Leipsic

Munich, Stuttgart, Gotha, Weimar, Carlsruhe, Freyburg, Jena, Dresden, Göttingen, Hanover, Cassel, Frankfort-on-the-Meyn, Augsburg, and Hamburg, are the most distinguished.

The commerce of Germany, in spite of the small divisions of the country and the right of each to its tolls and custom house duties, has been very active and extensive, and is daily increasing. It received a great impetus from the recent commercial league, which embraced most of Germany—what must it not gain from the total abolition of all state custom houses, and the confirmation of the right of transit, as guaranteed by the new constitution? The internal commerce and industry of the country must of necessity be largely promoted by this important acquisition; and in no less a measure will the foreign commercial interests be beneficially influenced. The principal exports of Germany are the manufactures before mentioned, and a great variety of agricultural and mineral products. The imports consist of wines, brandy, and other liquors, dried and salted fish, cheese, skins, tar, oil, tallow, leather, potash, copper, iron, West India produce, drugs, cotton, silk, &c. The transit trade is very considerable, and proves a source of wealth to the towns in which it centres. The principal maritime commercial towns are Hamburg, Lubec, Bremen, Emden, &c., and the principal inland trading towns are Frankfort, Leipsic, Augsburg, Nuremberg, Brunswick, Hanover, Cassel, Munich, Carlsruhe, Darmstadt, Weimar, &c., and generally all those towns where any extensive manufactures are carried on. The fair of Leipsic has no rival in the sale of books; and the trade of Hamburg is so great, as to rival that of some of the largest commercial cities of the world.

As already mentioned, Germany is composed of forty sovereign states. The states belonging to Austria, Prussia, Denmark, and Holland, are described under their appropriate heads. The description of those wholly within Germany will form the subjects of the following sections:

#### BAVARIA.

The KINGDOM OF BAVARIA, or *Baiern*, consists of two perfectly distinct portions; the larger situated in the basins of the Danube and the Meyn, and the smaller to the westward of the Rhine. It contains the ancient duchy of Bavaria, a part of the palatinate of the Rhine, the bishopric of Wurtzburg, and several other adjacent territories, portions of the old German empire. The king is representative of the two electors, viz. the Duke of Bavaria, and the Pfalzgraf, or Count Palatine of the Rhine. The kingdom was constituted by Napoleon in 1804, and received its present extension in 1815. The public revenues amount to about \$12,500,000 per annum, raised chiefly from imposts. The army consists of 58,239 men, but of these 17,000 are always on furlough, or absent on leave. The government is a constitutional monarchy with two chambers, and the religion of the state Roman Catholic. The kingdom, for administrative purposes is divided into eight circles, viz:

<i>Circles.</i>	<i>Population in 1840.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>	<i>Population.</i>
OBERBAIERN .....	690,492 .....	MUNCHEN, or Munich .....	95,000
NIEDERBAIERN .....	522,118 .....	Passau .....	10,500
PFALZ .....	570,120 .....	Speyer, or Spire .....	7,500
OBERPFALZ .....	457,608 .....	Ratisbon .....	26,500
OBERFRANKEN .....	486,222 .....	Bamberg .....	22,900
MITTELFRANKEN .....	511,937 .....	Anspach .....	17,000
UNTERFRANKEN .....	579,279 .....	Wurtzburg .....	22,000
SCHWABEN .....	544,201 .....	Augsburg .....	34,000
Total .....	4,370,977		

*Munich*, the capital, is situated on the Issar, in a flat and sterile plain, entirely destitute of beauty. It is now one of the finest cities in Germany, and contains many wide and straight streets, bordered with foot pavements, and lined with elegant houses and magnificent hotels. The "Hof," or king's palace, is one of the largest in Europe, and though irregular in its original plan, has lately been remodelled by Baron Klenze. The picture gallery is a fine building, and contains a magnificent collection of paintings, and the sculpture gallery is equally grand, with a good amount of statuary. Munich has a large number of learned societies, and its buildings dedicated to the fine arts alone are commensurately more numerous and splendid than in any other city. There are many pretty villages around the capital, which are much visited on holidays.

*Nurnberg*, anciently an imperial city, is situated on the Pegnitz, in the middle of a sandy but fertile plain, 90 miles N. by W. of Munich. Few towns in Europe present a lovelier picture than is to be found in the interior arrangements of its buildings, and the furniture of its houses, of the manners and customs of the middle ages, when Nurnburg was one of the richest, most industrious, and most commercial cities in Europe. It still maintains an important rank for trade and industry, though its population is reduced to 38,000.

*Augsburg*, another late imperial city, is built at the confluence of the Wertach with the Lech. It contains the principal depôt of arms, and has a very ancient and interesting Gothic church, and its Bishop's palace still contains the hall where the Protestant Confession of Faith was presented to the Kaiser, Charles V., in 1530. But this cradle of Protestantism is filled with all kinds of Catholic relics and records of miracles; every street indicates the national religion, and almost every house has its painted, carved, or plastered saint on its front. Augsburg is noted for its gold-work, jewelry, horologerie, mathematical instruments, cotton-factories, and other productions, which place it in the first rank of German manufacturing and commercial cities. It is connected by railroad with Munich.

*Ratisbon*, or Regensburg, also a late imperial city, lies on the right bank of the Danube, at its confluence with the Regen. Its streets are narrow, and well paved, and lined with very high houses in the German style. It contains several fine buildings, particularly the "Rath-Haus," in which the Diet of the empire used to assemble from 1662 to 1806. The bridge across the Danube measures 1090 feet in length. Its trade is very considerable, and it is noted for its goldsmith's work, jewelry and beer. The monument to Kepler, raised by the citizens, is a splendid token of esteem.

*Wurtzburg*, late capital of a sovereign bishopric, lies on the Meyn, in a country remarkable for cultivation and beauty. Wurtzburg is noted for industry and trade. It is far from being a fine city, but contains much worthy of notice.

*Bamberg* is a well-built, industrious, commercial city, situated upon the Rednitz, 124 miles N. by W. of Munich. *Kronach* is a place of considerable note for its coal mines, and is the entrepôt of the timber trade, which this country carries on along the Rhine as far as Holland. *Passau*, at the confluence of the Inn and Ilz with the Danube, is strongly fortified, and enjoys considerable commerce. In the citadel is a noted shrine, with the image of the "Virgin Mother of God," which is visited by multitudes of pilgrims; and which is said to have shed tears when the French were in *Passau*. A liquor is distilled from the breasts, which the profane declare to be spring water, but which to the faithful recipient tastes like rich milk!

*Speyer*, or Spire, is a small commercial town on the left bank of the Rhine, in the Palatinate, but more noted in its histories than for its present importance. *Landau*, 17 miles south-west of Speyer, is one of the imperial fortresses of Germany. It forms a regular octagon, having eight curtains covered by seven bulwarks, three redoubts, seven lunettes, and a fort or citadel with three whole and two half bastions, the whole being surrounded by deep ditches supplied by the Queich and a canal.

## WURTEMBERG.

The KINGDOM OF WURTEMBERG adjoins Bavaria on the West, and is situated in the middle of the ancient Suabia, extending also into Franconia. It is one of the kingdoms erected by Napoleon, at the period of the dissolution of the empire, in favor of the then Duke of Wurtemberg. It is divided into four circles, viz :

<i>Circles.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>	<i>Population.</i>
NECKAR .....	467,374.....	Stuttgardt .....	32,000
SCHWARZWALD (Black Forest,).....	452,515.....	Reutlingen.....	10,000
JAGT, or Jagst .....	375,257.....	Elwangen .....	2,600
DONAU (Danube,) .....	289,192.....	Ulm.....	14,000
Total.....	1,682,338		

There are four garrison towns in the kingdom, viz. *Stuttgardt*, *Ludwigsburg*, *Ulm*, and *Heilbron*. The army consists of 19,170 men.

*Stuttgardt*, the capital, is situated on the Nesenbach, not far from its confluence with the Neckar, in a damp, unhealthy valley, surrounded with vine-covered hills. The king's palace is the most imposing edifice. The environs are by far more interesting than the city itself, the surrounding heights affording ample room for recreation and pleasure.

Few other towns in this kingdom are worthy of notice, but almost all are intimately connected with some bright pages of history.

## BADEN.

The GRAND DUCHY OF BADEN consists of a long narrow strip of country, extending along the north and east sides of the Rhine, from near *Mannheim* to the Lake of Constance, a distance of nearly 300 miles along the river. Two sides border on Switzerland and France; and the greater part of the remaining border is formed by Wurtemberg. The general aspect of the country is more mountainous than level, the Black Forest and a part of the Odenwald comprising at least one-third. The climate and soil are alike propitious to agriculture. The forests yield great wealth, and the rivers not only diffuse fertility and beautify the landscape, but being navigable, tend to encourage commerce. The Germans compare Baden to a black-pudding (*blatwurst*) on account of its disproportionate length, but at the same time acknowledge its fertility in regarding it as "das Eden Deutschlands," the paradise of Germany. The Grand Duchy is divided into four circles :—

<i>Circles.</i>	<i>Population, 1840.</i>	<i>Chief towns.</i>	<i>Population.</i>
MITTEL-RHEIN .....	437,272.....	CARLSRUHE.....	20,000
SEE.....	186,556.....	Constance.....	5,300
OBER-RHEIN .....	340,934.....	Freyburg .....	15,000
UNTER-RHEIN .....	332,205.....	Mannheim.....	22,800
Total.....	1,296,967		



*Carlsruhe* (Charles' rest,) the capital, is a fine modern city, regularly built in the form of a fan, with its principal streets, 32 in number, diverging from the Grand Ducal Castle. This castle or palace is a very neat building, with a fine collection of paintings, mostly French, and the pleasure grounds attached are extensive and well-kept, but gloomy. The streets of the city are broad, well-paved and clear. *Leopoldhafen* is the port of Carlsruhe, on the Rhine. In the immediate neighborhood are Amaliens and Ludwigslust, two palaces, with fine gardens; and a few miles further, Durlach, the former residence of the Margraves of Baden, with a college and mint. *Brucksal*, *Pforzheim*, and *Rastadt* have extensive baths. *Baden*, from which the grand duchy takes its name, called also Baden-Baden, is a pretty little town, 20 miles S. by W. of Carlsruhe, and five from the Rhine, celebrated for its mineral waters, which are frequented by thousands of strangers. The town is irregular and ill built, partly situated on a lofty acclivity, and partly scattered along the banks of a rivulet, in a beautiful valley, adorned with vineyards and enclosed by fine wooded heights, crowned with picturesque ruins. The waters are principally used for bathing, and are calculated to relieve rheumatic complaints, contractions, and skin-diseases. There are altogether 13 warm springs, varying from 54° Reaumer downwards. These waters early attracted the attention of the Romans, and the town of Baden was their *Civitas Aurelia Aquensis*.

*Constance* is an ancient Roman town, but much fallen from its former importance. It has some trade, and a port on the lake. Numerous villages, noted chiefly for their mineral baths, and fine old castles, lie around the town.

*Freyburg* is a thriving commercial town, situated on the Treisam, an affluent of the Rhine. Its cathedral and university are the great attraction. South-east of Freyburg is the Hollenthal, (infernal valley,) through which General Moreau effected his celebrated retreat in 1796. It is a most stupendous defile, so narrow as barely to leave room for the road, and the roaring torrent that passes through it; while the rocks on both sides are so lofty, and approach each other so near, as totally to exclude the rays of the sun. Yet, through this dangerous gorge, nearly a mile in length, did Moreau conduct his army in the most perfect order, with an enemy behind him. Several towns are located on the Black Forest.

*Mannheim*, at the confluence of the Neckar with the Rhine, is the largest city of Baden, alike remarkable for the regularity of its streets and the tastefulness of its buildings. It was formerly the residence of the Electors-Palatine of the Rhine, whose palace is a very large building, and contains a rich library and collections of curiosities. Mannheim is a free port, and carries on considerable trade. *Heidelberg*, twelve miles south-east of Mannheim, is chiefly noted for its university.

#### HOHENZOLLERN.

The Hohenzollern possessions are divided into the two principalities of HOHENZOLLERN-HECKINGEN and HOHENZOLLERN-SIGMARINGEN, which are almost entirely surrounded by the territory of Wurtemberg, and touch Baden on their south-west side. The government of both are very similar, being limited sovereignties with one chamber, and the Roman Catholic is the public religion.

*Hechingen*, a small town with 3,000 inhabitants, on the Starzel, is the capital of one of the principalities; and *Sigmaringen*, a still smaller town, on the Danube, is the capital of the other. It is in contemplation to annex

these small principalities to Wurtemberg, so says a Frankfort correspondent, 12th Nov. 1848.

## HESSEN.

The HESSIAN STATES lie contiguous to Frankfort, and are divided by the Rhine and the Meyn. All the princes, being descended from a common ancestor, bear his title of Landgrave of Hessen. The family is divided into two branches: the elder of which is sub-divided into the branches of Philipsthal and Cassel; and the younger into the branches of Darmstadt and Homberg. The Landgraves of Hessen-Philipsthal are subjects of Hessen Cassel; but both the branches of younger Hessen are, as well as Cassel, sovereign members of the Confederation. The three states are distinguished by the names of Hessen-Cassel, or Electoral Hessen; Hessen-Darmstadt, and Hessen-Homburg.

HESSEN-CASSEL is situated between Hanover and Bavaria, on the north; the Saxon duchies and part of the Prussian territories on the east; and Hessen-Darmstadt and Waldeck on the west. It is divided into the following four provinces:

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Chief towns.</i>	<i>Population.</i>
NIEDER-HESSEN .....	353,220.....	CASSEL.....	2,600
OBER-HESSEN .....	119,608.....	Marlburg.....	7,000
FULDA .....	137,777.....	Fulda.....	9,000
HANAU .....	118,645.....	Hanau.....	13,000
Total .....	728,650		

*Cassel* is a fine city, consisting of two towns, the old and new, divided by the river Fulda, across which there is a handsome stone bridge. It contains some magnificent buildings, an extensive park, called the "Augarten," &c. In its neighborhood are Wilhelmsthal, a fine palace, and Wilhelmshöhe, regarded as one of the most magnificent residences in Europe. *Karlshafen* is a small town, newly built, with a port on the Weser; and *Spangenberg* contains the state prison. *Marburg* is the seat of a university, and *Fulda* is noted for its cathedral. The whole valley of Schmalkalden is one vast work-shop, where iron and steel are wrought into articles of every sort. *Hanau* is a neat, busy, manufacturing and commercial town on the Kinzig, not far from its confluence with the Meyn, twelve miles east of Frankfort. It was here that the French army, on their retreat from the disastrous battle of Leipzig in October, 1813, were waylaid and attacked by the Austro-Bavarian army, under Marshal Wrede, who, expecting an easy victory over the disheartened fugitives, paid for his presumption by a severe defeat, which cost him 12,000 men.

The sovereign of this principality having been one of the Electors of the German Empire, still chooses to retain his title of Churfurst, (Elector,) a higher dignity than that of Grand Duke or Landgrave; and his territory is called Electoral Hessen, to distinguish it from the possessions of the other branches of the family.

HESSEN-DARMSTADT, a grand duchy, consists of three distinct territories, separated from each other by the Rhine and the Meyn; and of a smaller portion between Hessen-Cassel and Waldeck. It is divided into two principalities, which are sub-divided into 29 districts, and one province sub-divided into 11 cantons. The Landgrave assumed the title of Grand Duke in 1814.

<i>Divisions.</i>	<i>Population in 1840.</i>	<i>Chief Towns</i>	<i>Population.</i>
STARKENBURG.....	300,160.....	DARMSTADT.....	20,000
OBER-HESSEN.....	297,672.....	Giessen.....	7,000
RHEIN-HESSEN.....	213,671.....	Maynz, (Mayence, Mentz,).....	31,000
Total.....		811,503	

*Darmstadt*, the capital, and residence of the Grand Duke, lies upon the Darm, 18 miles south of Frankfort. It consists of two towns: the old town, a sombre place, surrounded with an ancient wall; and the new town, well-built, with wide and neat streets. The Grand Ducal Palace, the Hall of the States, and some other buildings of a public nature, adorn the place.

*Maynz*, (Mayence or Mentz,) is a large and strongly-fortified place, on the left bank of the Rhine, a little below its confluence with the Meyn. Maynz is the principal fortress of the Confederation, and also the centre of a very active commerce. The population exceeds 31,000, besides the garrison, which is never less than 6,000 strong. The citizens have recently erected a statue to John Guttenburg, the inventor of printing. *Worms*, 27 miles south of Maynz, is one of the most ancient cities of Germany, having been built by the Romans. It was frequently the residence of the Carolingian kings, and the place of meeting of the Diets of the Empire; but it is now only the shadow of what it was. Its dom-kirk or cathedral, a very imposing structure, dates from the 8th century. Population, 8,000.

HESSEN-HOMBURG, a Landgraviate, and an absolute state, is an insignificant principality, consisting of two portions: the one surrounding the small town of Homburg, and the other, the lordship of Meissenheim, between the rivers Nahe and Glan, to the south-west of Bingen.

*Homburg von der Hoche*, on the Eschbach, a small town of 3,000 inhabitants, is the residence of the Landgrave. It contains several remains of Roman antiquities.

*Meissenheim* is a small town, on the Glan, with 2,000 inhabitants. In the neighborhood are mines of iron and coal.

#### NASSAU.

The DUCHY OF NASSAU is situated to the east of the Rhine, in the corner formed by the Meyn, where it joins that river. The greater part of the territory is mountainous, and contains above 120 mineral springs; but of these only about 20 are of much repute.

*Wiesbaden*, the capital, is a pretty little town, well-situated, and a celebrated bathing place. There are a number of springs and baths; the principal of the latter is in a fine building called the Kur-saal. Population, 7,000. The duke generally resides at Biberich, on the Rhine, where he has a superb castle. *Nieder-Selters* is much noted for its mineral waters, of which it exports one million and a half bottles annually. *Johannesberg*, celebrated for its wines and its fine cattle, belonging to Prince Metternich, is in this state. *Nassau*, which gives its name to the duchy, to the ducal family, and to the family of Orange, now of Holland, is a small town on the Lahn, below Dietz.

The wines of Nassau are among the best and most celebrated manufactured in Germany.

## WALDECK.

The PRINCIPALITY OF WALDECK consists of two separate parts :—Waldeck, north-west of Cassel, and the small county of Pymont.

*Corbach*, on the Itter, a small town with 2,200 inhabitants, is the capital ; but the prince generally resides at Arolsen. *Pymont*, a small town, of 1,100 inhabitants, 35 miles south-west from Hanover, is noted for its baths and mineral waters, which attract great numbers of travellers. *Waldeck*, which gives its name to the state, is a small town on the Eder, with a castle, six miles east of the capital.

## LIPPE.

The PRINCIPALITIES OF LIPPE are situated between Hanover and the Prussian province of Westphalia, on both sides of the Weser.

LIPPE-DETMOLD, the larger of the principalities, contains several flourishing towns. *Detmold*, on the Werra, has about 3,000 inhabitants ; *Lemgo*, 3,800 ; *Lippstadt*, (possessed in common with Prussia,) 3,200 ; and *Horn*, 1,300. Near the latter is the Exterstein, a series of six immense isolated rocks, the highest of which has on its top a large artificial grotto, and another contains a chapel, also dug out of the rock. The road from Horn to Paderborn passes between the third and fourth, as if through an immense gateway.

LIPPE-SCHAUENBURG, the smaller state, contains *Buckeburg*, on the Ane, which has 2,100 inhabitants ; and *Stadthagen*, near which is a valuable coal mine, has a population of about 1,600.

The above are distinct sovereignties, belonging to different branches of the same family.

## SAXONY.

The possessions of the Princes of SAXONY lie all contiguous, along the northern frontier of Bohemia and Bavaria ; and include portions of the ancient Misnia, Lusatia, Thuringia, Vogtland, and Franconia. They form five sovereign states :—the elder, named the Ernestine branch, being the descendants of the Elector Johann Frederick, who was deposed for Lutherism by the Emperor Charles V. ; and the younger, or cadet branch, named the Albertine, being descended from Duke Maurice, who was invested with the Electorate by the same emperor, in 1548, for his services against the Protestants. The head of the Albertine branch is now king of Saxony ; the Ernestine branch is subdivided into two minor branches, the heads of one of which are the Duke of Sachsen-Coburg-Gotha, the Duke of Sachsen-Meiningen-Hildburghausen-Saalfeld, and the Duke of Sachsen-Altenburg ; and of the other, the Grand Duke of Sachsen-Weimar-Eisenach. According to the ancient German custom, all the princes of both branches bear the title of Duke of Saxony, (*Herzog von Sachsen*,) but are distinguished by the addition of the name of the territory which each family actually possesses. The states of the late Grand Duke of Sachsen-Gotha, who died in 1825, were divided, in terms of a convention, dated 12th November, 1826, among his collateral relatives, the Princes of Coburg, Meiningen, and Hildburghausen, the last of whom ceded Hildburghausen to Meiningen, and now takes the addition of Altenburg, from the chief town of that portion of the Gotha territory which has fallen to his share

The KINGDOM OF SAXONY was, until recently, divided into the five circles of Meissen, Leipzig, Erzegebirge, Vogtland and Lautsitz, (Lusatia,) which were irregularly sub-divided into districts and bailiwicks. It was formerly much larger, but the king was stripped of great part of his dominions for his faithful adherence to the falling fortunes of Napoleon, in 1812, and the dismantled territory was transferred to the king of Prussia. At the present time Saxony is divided into four circles, viz. :

<i>Circles.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Chief towns.</i>	<i>Population.</i>
DRESDEN .....	420,817	DRESDEN .....	66,000
LEIPZIG .....	367,753	Leipzig .....	41,000
ZWICKAU .....	584,707	Freyberg .....	12,000
BAUTZEN .....	262,913	Bautzen .....	12,000

The northern portion of the kingdom forms part of the great plain of Germany, but the southern portion rises into and includes the northern spurs and the valley of the Erzegebirge, which divide Saxony from Bohemia. The climate is dry and temperate, though in the mountains the winters are severe. The Saxons are the most industrious people of Germany, and are making great efforts to become a commercial nation. Railroads are springing up everywhere, and great encouragement is given to trade and manufactures. The state religion is the Lutheran, and education, conducted much after the Prussian system, well attended to. Previous to 1830, the feudal system was in its full vigor in Saxony, but the revolutionary spirit which had effected so much in France and Belgium now invaded this state, and the king was compelled to submit to limitations of his power. There are now two houses of legislature, and the king is so curtailed that his power is more nominal than real. The Senate consists of 52 members, partly official and partly elected from among the great landowners. The Chamber of Deputies consists of 300 members, elected by taxed heads of families. The pay of each is three dollars a day during attendance. The cities and towns now elect their own magistrates and manage their own affairs. The rest of the country is also divided into municipal districts, which, in like manner, elect their own officers and attend to their own affairs. Appeal from the municipal courts lies at the king's court at Dresden. Saxony may now be considered as a democratic state, but the full effect of democratic principles are little experienced as yet by a people who for so many ages have borne the burdens of feudalism and slavery.

*Dresden*, the capital, is delightfully situated on the Elbe, at its confluence with the Weisseritz, in the middle of a large rich plain, surrounded by an amphitheatre of low hills. It is one of the first cities in Europe, and highly celebrated for the splendor of its public buildings. The manufactures of Dresden are very various, the principal articles of which are cloth, straw-hats, wax-candles, jewelry, musical instruments, laces, coaches, &c., which afford material for a very considerable trade. The king's ordinary residence is at Pillnitz, a fine palace with superb gardens, on the right bank of the Elbe, seven miles south-east of the capital; and about the same distance north-west is the old palace of Moritzburg, once the favorite resort of the Saxon princes. The manufactory of porcelain, at Meissen, on the left bank of the Elbe, below Dresden, is one of the best and most celebrated in Europe, and employs from 500 to 600 persons.

*Leipzig*, (Leipsic,) situated on the rivers Elster, Pleisse and Parde, 60 miles W. N. W. of Dresden, is a well built town in the midst of a charming country. It possesses a great number of scientific and literary institutions, and a university with a valuable library, said to be the most flourishing in

Germany. Leipzig is not only a manufacturing town and great commercial mart, but ranks among the first cities of Europe. It is particularly noted for its three great annual fairs, held at New-Year's, Michaelmas and Easter, each lasting 14 days, and at which over 1,000 foreign merchants attend. It is the greatest book-selling mart in the world. The town is surrounded with delightful gardens and pastures. It was in the neighborhood of Leipzig, on the 16th, 17th and 18th Oct., 1813, that the great battle of the people (Volkerschlacht) was fought, which broke the power of Napoleon, and freed Germany from the yoke of France. To commemorate this event an annual festival, called the "Allen Deutschenfest," is kept on the 18th October; and at Probstheida, a small village in the centre of the field of battle, a colossal cross has been raised.

*Freyburg*, 20 miles S. W. by W. from Dresden, is a large town upon the Mulde, noted for its silver mines. In its neighborhood are *Halsbruck*, *Himmelsfurst* and *Bescheert-gluck*, all employed in the valuable mines which spread over southern Saxony. In 640 years, the mines of Freyberg have produced 16,400,000 marcs of silver. *Chemnitz*, 40 miles W. S. W. of Dresden, is the most industrious town in the kingdom, and of its 23,000 inhabitants, almost all are employed in the manufacture of cotton, woollen and silk goods. *Annaberg*, *Schneeberg* and *Johann-Georgenstadt*, are three small towns among the hills, south of Chemnitz, noted for their manufacturing industry, and particularly for the great quantity of lace they produce. *Plauen* is also a large manufacturing town. *Bautzen* is engaged in manufactures and trade; *Zettau* manufactures and has some commerce, and among the other manufacturing towns may be named Ebersbach, Neu-Eybau, Gros-Schonau and Hernhutt, the cradle of the Hernhutters, or United Brethren.

The DUCHY OF SACHSEN-COBURG-GOTHA consists of the two principalities of Gotha and Coburg in Thuringia, on the northern border of Bavaria.

*Gotha*, the capital, near the Seine, is a neat trading town with 13,000 inhabitants. It is an unexceptionable town, and contains many valuable institutions. "Nature and art," says Dr. Granville, "have made of this city as fair a capital in miniature as can be well imagined." At no great distance is the observatory of Seeberg, to which the Barons Zach and Lindenau have given great celebrity. *Korner*, 22 miles north of Gotha, is the chief town of a small district detached from the rest of the state. *Coburg*, on the Itz, 40 miles south of Gotha, is a neat trading town with several manufactures, and about 8,000 inhabitants.

By the peace of Paris, in 1814, the duke, besides Coburg and Gotha, had assigned to him a territory with 80,000 inhabitants, to the west of the Rhine, but he has recently transferred the administration of that district to Prussia, for an annual pension of 80,000 crowns. He was formerly designated Duke of Sachsen-Coburg-Saalfeld; but having ceded the latter territory to Meiningen, in 1826, he now takes the addition of Gotha instead of it.

The DUCHY OF SACHSEN-MEININGEN-HILDBURGHAUSEN-SAALEFIELD, consists of a long irregular tract between Gotha and Coburg, besides several separate patches. Some few manufactures are carried on in this state.

*Meiningen*, on the Weser, is a neat town, with 5,000 inhabitants. The duke usually resides at the castle of Elizabethenburg. *Hildburghausen*, the seat of the supreme authorities of the duchy, contains about 4,000 residents. *Saalfeld* contains a mint. Cloth, leather and porcelain are made at *Poesneck*, and toys at *Sonnenburg*.

The DUCHY OF SACHSEN-ALTENBURG adjoins the western border of the kingdom of Saxony, and is divided into two portions by Weimar and Reuss.

*Altenburg*, on the Pleisse, is the capital, and has 12,000 inhabitants. Porcelain furnishes the great staple of industry in this state. The duke abdicated in November, 1848, in favor of his brother George.

The GRAND DUCHY OF SACHSEN-WEIMAR-EISENACH consists of six or seven separate parcels of territory interspersed among the several Saxon principalities, but arranged for administrative purposes into the three provinces of Weimar-Jena, Neustadt, and Eisenach.

*Weimar* is the capital. This town is noted for its scientific institutions and printing-presses. The "Geographical Ephemerides," published here, is one of the most valuable works extant, and the basis of the geographical statistics now used throughout the world. Population, 12,000. *Jena*, *Neustadt*, *Eisenach*, &c., are considerable towns—especially the first, which has a celebrated university and other institutions. The porcelain works and forges of Ilmenau are also celebrated.

#### REUSS.

The PRINCIPALITIES OF REUSS are held by two several branches of the same family; the elder is named Reuss-Greiz, and the younger Reuss-Schleitz, the latter being sub-divided into the two branches of Reuss-Schleitz, and Reuss-Lobenstein-Ebersdorf. They possess a very small territory, in Upper Saxony, divided into two separate parts, immediately adjoining the south-western border of the kingdom of Saxony. The division of the family into the two existing branches took place in the year 1535, on the death of Henry Reuss, lord of Plauen, who left three sons, two of whom were the ancestors of the present princes.

The towns of these principalities are—*Gera*, with 9,000 inhabitants; *Greitz*, with 7,000; *Zeulenroda*, with 4,500; *Schleitz*, with 5,000; *Hohenleuben*, with 1,000, of whom 400 are Hernhutters, and *Lobenstein*, with 3,000 inhabitants.

Though the estates of the two branches of the house of Schleitz constitute two independent principalities, yet they form together only one member of the confederation, and have only one vote in the Diet.

#### SCHWARTZBURG.

The PRINCIPALITIES OF SCHWARTZBURG-SONDERSHAUSEN and SCHWARTZBURG-RUDOLSTADT comprise three distinct portions of territory, intermingled with the Saxon principalities and the Prussian territory. Both are represented in the Diet.

The principal towns are *Sondershausen*, at the confluence of the Beber and the Wipper, containing 3,600 inhabitants; and *Rudolstadt*, on the banks of the Saale, with 5,000 inhabitants.

Trade and manufactures are well-sustained in all the towns, and in some districts mining operations are actively engaged in.

#### ANHALT.

The DUCHIES OF ANHALT consist of five separate portions on both sides of the Elbe, surrounded by the Prussian territory. They form three sovereign states, members of the confederation, and are distinguished as ANHALT-DESSAU, ANHALT-BERNBERG, and ANHALT-KOETHEN, or COETHEN. The

powers of the princes are limited, and the religion of the first is the Reformed, and of the two latter Evangelical.

The principal towns are—*Dessau*, with 10,000 inhabitants; *Bernberg*, with 5,000, and *Koethen*, with 6,000. They are chiefly employed in small manufactures; and some places in the territories are engaged in mining.

In November, 1848, the commissioner of the Central Executive, as well as the Diet, declared the Duke of Anhalt-bernberg incapable of reigning, and the latter has resolved, 18 to 1, to entrust the regency to the Duke of Anhalt-Dessau, on certain conditions, viz; that he guarantees the independence and constitution, appoints a popular ministry, &c.

#### BRUNSWICK.

The **DUCHY OF BRUNSWICK**, belonging to the elder branch of the Brunswick family, or Brunswick Wolfenbittel, consists of a few scattered parcels of territory between Hanover and the Prussian provinces of Magdeburg and Brandenburg, and is comprised in six districts, viz: Braunschweig, (Brunswick,) Wolfenbittel, Helmstedt, Gandersheim, Holzminden, and Blankenburg, named from their chief towns.

*Brunswick*, the capital, is a well-built city, with 36,000 inhabitants, situated on the Ocker, and possesses several scientific and literary institutions.

*Wolfenbittel*, a small city with 8,000 inhabitants, is the seat of the tribunal of appeal for Brunswick, Lippe, and Waldeck, and possesses one of the richest libraries in Europe.

The Duke of Brunswick also possesses the Principality of Oels, in Silesia, with 97,000 inhabitants, under the sovereignty of the King of Prussia.

#### HANOVER.

The **KINGDOM OF HANOVER**, belonging to the younger branch of the Brunswick family, called Brunswick-Luneburg, is situated between the latitudes of  $51^{\circ} 18'$  and  $53^{\circ} 25'$  N., and longitudes  $68^{\circ} 43'$  and  $11^{\circ} 45'$  E. It is bounded on the north by the German Ocean and the river Elbe; on the east by Prussia and Brunswick; on the south by Prussia and Hessen-Cassel, and on the west by Holland. Its boundary is very irregular, and a portion on the west is almost divided from the rest of the kingdom by the Grand Duchy of Oldenburg. Length 172 miles—breadth from east to west 180 miles; area, 14,276 square miles. Klaustrat, one of the provinces, lies south of Brunswick.

The surface of Hanover presents an inclined plain, gently sloping from the south-east, and nowhere, except on a few of its eminences, of a greater elevation than 200 feet above the sea. None of the hills in the central provinces exceed 1,400 feet; the Harz, in the south part of the district of Hildesheim, are the highest hills in the country. The culminating point of Konigsberg is not less than 3,300 feet, and is the highest summit in the kingdom. The geological character of these mountains is chiefly of granite, overlaid with grauwacke, grauwacke-slate, and clay-slate; and in these the mineral riches, hereafter described, are chiefly found; above these strata lie the flötz and tertiary formations. The northern parts are chiefly diluvial, and the lowlands on the sea coast are below the sea-level, and are kept dry by means of dykes similar to those of Holland; these lands, however, are by far the most productive of the kingdom.

Hanover is traversed by three large rivers, all of which flow into the German Ocean: 1. The *Elbe*, which rises in the plateau of Bohemia, enters the kingdom at Schnackenburg, and forms, with a slight exception, its whole northern boundary, as far as its mouth; its principal affluents are—



the Jetze, Ilmenau, Este, and Oste, all on the south bank. 2. The *Weser*, formed by the junction of the Werra and Fulda at Munden, flowing north-west as far as the junction of the Aller and its tributary the Leine, and thence north past Bremen into the German Ocean. 3. The *Ems*, rising in Westphalia, and flowing north through the moorlands of Meppen and East Friesland to Emden at its mouth.

Throughout the flats of northern Germany there are numerous lakes and stagnant pools, in which the water subsides after the floods which submerge the country in the winter and spring: the chief of these in Hanover are the Steinhuder-meer, five miles long, and two and a half broad; the Dümmer-zee, and the Seeburger-zee. In East Friesland, the subterraneous lake Jordan is so thickly coated with vegetation that wagons can pass over it. The mountain lake Oderteich, in the Harz, is 2,200 feet above the sea.

Three-sevenths of the lands of Hanover are waste; two-sevenths forests; and the remainder arable meadow and garden lands. The waste consists of vast sandy deserts, unavailable to cultivation; this "Arabia of Germany" extends in a broad belt across the kingdom, and is covered with heath, on which a small and hardy breed of sheep find a scanty subsistence; their wool is coarse, but the flesh is well flavored. The richest lands are the alluvial soil and weald-clay at the mouths of the Elbe and Weser; the soils of a secondary class are those of the lime-stone districts, and the least productive soil is that of the Duchy of Aremberg-Meppen. Much of all the lands is laid out in meadow, and yields good crops of hay, or supports vast herds of cattle. Cattle-breeding is one of the principal occupations of the people.

The climate is damp and unwholesome in the low countries about the coast; otherwise, Hanover is a very temperate and healthy country. The average temperature, is, for spring  $6^{\circ} 8'$ , summer  $14^{\circ} 5'$ , autumn  $7^{\circ} 7'$ , and winter  $0^{\circ} 8'$ : the mean average of the year is  $7^{\circ} 4'$  *Reaumer*. The fall of rain during the year averages 23.5 inches, but it is very unequally distributed. Fogs prevail in the dyke-lands, and in winter violent storms are frequent, causing great damage to the embankments and drainage.

The mining interests of Hanover are at low stand, being preserved as a Royalty, and controlled by an expensive establishment of officers. Of the thirty mines in the Upper Harz, only seven are at present worked, and the amount of lead ore, at an average of ten years, was 1,647,023 cwt. yearly, produced at an expense of 877,700 rix-dollars, and netting to the government 633,100 rix-dollars. The ore of Clausthal is very rich, yielding 75 per cent. of lead, and from  $1\frac{1}{2}$  to 4 per cent. of silver; and the ores of Andreasberg produce from 6 to 11 per cent. of silver. Silver, copper, and sometimes gold are produced in tolerable large quantities. The iron mines of Hanover are inconsiderable, the average for five years being a production of only 290,000 cwt. annually. The salt-works employ 480 hands, and yield 230,000 cwt. Coal is found in the hills that divide the Weser from the Leine, but at present only about 2,260,000 cubic feet are worked yearly.

The manufactures of Hanover are much restricted, and all enterprise is barred by imposts, which prevents the inhabitants from extending their commerce. Most of their goods are produced at such an expense as to exclude them from the foreign markets. The manufactures of linen is, perhaps, more extensive than that of any other. Spinning and weaving form the in-door employment of the rural population. The osnaburgs of Hanover are well-known in all markets. The hempen cloths are known as tecklenburgs, hempen-bagging and hessans; they are commonly made up in pieces of 100 double ells (128 yards.) The manufacture of cotton cloths

is of recent date, and only the coarser kinds are made. The woollen cloths are reckoned at 28,000 pieces annually. There are about 50 paper mills in the kingdom, and several other factories, the proceeds of which are unimportant. The linen trade is highly protected.

The commerce of Hanover, considering the facilities of harbor and river communication she enjoys, is very small. In 1838 the number of vessels owned by Hanoverians was only 422, having a burden of 31,730 tons, and of these 400 belonged to the port of Ems. The coasters and river craft amount to 1,370. The exports consist of linens and woollens, linen yarns, flax, wool, lead, horses and cattle, the cereal grains, butter, cheese, &c., to the average amount of \$6,000,000. The principal imports are English manufactures, colonial produce, wine and spirits. The merchants of Bremen and Hamburg, however, purchase large quantities of goods of Hanover for exportation, hence a share of the exports from those places may be placed to the account of this kingdom.

By the new mint regulations in 1834, the coinage of Hanover has been fixed as follows :

		English.	American
GOLD.....	1 George-pistole .....	= 16s. 4d. =	.....\$3 92
	1 Williams-pistole .....	= 8s. 2d. =	..... 1 96
	1 Ducat .....	= 4s. 1d. =	..... 0 98
SILVER.....	1 Thaler = 24 groschen.....	= 2s. 11½d. =	..... 0 70.5
	1-6 Thaler = 4 " .....	= 5¾d. =	..... 0 11.7

Accounts are kept in thalers. The system of weights observes the following designations:

1 Zentner.....	= 46.8 kilog .....	= 103 lbs. avoirdupois.
1 Pfund.....	= 46.7 grammes .....	= 15.½ oz. "
1 Loth .....	= 14.6 " .....	= 5.1-6 " "

The measures of length are—

1 Foot.....	= 12 zollen.....	= 11½ English inches.
1 Ell.....	= 24 " .....	= 23 " or 0.639 yard.
1 Rod.....	= 16 feet.....	= 5.1 " yards.
1 Mile .....	= 25,400 feet.....	= 4.6 " miles.

Land is measured by the "Surface Measure," which is as follows:

1 Square Foot.....	= 0.92 English square foot.
1 Morgen .....	= 0.64 " acre.

The Kingdom of Hanover is divided into seven districts: the area, population, &c., of which, are as shown in the annexed table, taken from *Reden's Hanover*, the latest authority on the subject:

	Area in sq. miles.	Population.	Proportion to sq. mile.	Towns.	Villages.	Houses.
HANOVER.....	2,483	325,980	131.7	39	880	44,795
HILDESHEIM.....	1,680	357,170	212.7	34	587	49,685
LUNEBURG.....	4,295	366,800	71.4	38	1,685	39,550
STADE.....	2,615	245,540	93.9	27	1,050	39,190
OSNABURG.....	21,330	266,270	114.3	21	350	40,300
AURICH.....	1,113	157,430	141.4	12	345	26,330
KLAUSTHAL (mining)	210	29,090	138.5	7	45	2,830
Total .....	14,276	1,688,280	113.6	178	4,942	242,680

The most populous towns are Hanover, (the capital,) 24,000 inhabitants; Hildesheim, 15,000; Gottingen, 11,000; Luneburg, 12,000; Celle, 10,300; Stade, 5,700; Osnaburg, 11,500; Emden, 12,000; Aurich, 12,000, and Clausthal, 9,100. The population in 1823 was 1,434,130, and in 1836,

1,688,280, which shows an increase from 1823 to 1836 of 254,150, or 17.7 per cent, and may now be little short of 2,000,000.

The condition of the people is not favorable; they are subject to feudal laws and the abuses of a past age; they are chiefly confined to agriculture, and are industrious and temperate, laboring without ill-feeling for the smallest possible remuneration. They are mostly descended from the ancient Saxons, and as such speak chiefly the Low Dutch language, except in the Harz, where the people are from Upper Germany. The circumstance of the language of the laboring classes differing from that of the educated, in which all intellectual progress takes place, operates powerfully to keep back the former, and is a serious impediment to the admission of the lower classes to a participation in the government through their representatives.

The government is an hereditary monarchy, and until lately the sovereigns of England were also kings of Hanover. The salic law being in force at the time of the accession of Queen Victoria, her claim merged into that of the Duke of Cumberland, the present king. The constitution provides for two chambers, who make all laws, which, on being approved by the sovereign, are put in force. The king has a "privy council" which advises him in all state affairs. The judiciary consists of a supreme court, nine chanceries or district courts, besides the magisteries of the towns, and the manorial and minor royal courts, as primary tribunals.

The population, considered in respect to religious creeds, is thus divided: Lutherans, 1,356,000; Calvinists, 102,850; Roman Catholics, 212,300; Jews, 11,000; Mennonites, 1,850. Religious matters are directed by six Calvinistic consistories, one Lutheran, one Roman Catholic, and one secularized (alternated R. C. and Protestant) consistory.

Education has received considerable attention; but as before stated, it is not carried on in the dialect most familiar to the people, the instruction being given almost universally in the High Dutch tongue. There are 3,428 elementary schools, attended by 214,524 scholars. The teachers are prepared for their duties at six normal schools. Besides this provision for the poor, there are 17 gymnasia and high schools, and also 13 elementary grammar schools, taught by 71 masters, and attended by more than 2,000 children. These schools prepare youth for the university and for the various callings of life. The university of Gottingen is one of the most celebrated in Europe, and a few years back counted from 15 to 1900 students, but of late that number has been sadly diminished on account of the arbitrary measures of the king in expelling seven of its most illustrious professors. Previous to the revolutions of 1848, the press was under a censorship, which affected the public libraries as well as the editors and publishers of newspapers. This, however, with many of the other disabilities of Hanover, has ceased to be, and it is presumed that freedom of thought will work as much good here as it has a tendency to do everywhere else.

The revenue of the country is derived from direct and indirect taxation; among the former are the land tax, the house tax, the personal tax, the income tax, and lastly the industry tax, (!) which is paid by all tradesmen, in seven classes, the lowest paying half dollars and the highest 80 dollars. The indirect taxes are the customs, tax on spirits, beer, &c., salt monopoly, stamp and legacy duties, besides duties levied on the grinding of corn (!) and unslaughtered beasts (!). The total annual revenue and expenditures vibrates between the extremes of 6 and 7,000,000 rix dollars; the national debt is about 15,000,000 dollars. The king's civil list, chiefly taken from

the crown lands, is 513,888 dollars. Hanover is one of the heaviest taxed countries in Germany.

The contingent of Hanover to the confederate army is 13,050 men, belonging to the 10th division; but the whole army consists of above 21,200, and bears a proportion to the population as 1 in 83. There are ten garrison towns; a cannon foundry at Hanover, and a manufactory of small arms at Hertzberg. The expense of maintaining this army is about 1,500,000 dollars a year.

Hanover is formed out of the several duchies formerly belonging to the junior branches of the House of Brunswick. The reigning family is descended from the Marquis d'Este in the 11th century, whose issue received the surname of Guelph. The history of Hanover for the two centuries before the Lutheran reformation presents little interest, except in the connection of its powers with the wars of the Guelphs and Ghibellines, in the 14th century; little or nothing is known of its internal history. The Reformation numbered the princes of Brunswick among its most zealous supporters, and their subjects, during the thirty years' war, warmly seconded their anti-Roman efforts. Ernest Augustus, a prince of Brunswick, married Sophia, the grand-daughter of James I. of England, and on this marriage was founded the claim of the elder branch of that house to the English crown, acknowledged by Parliament in 1701. George Louis was the issue, who became King of England in 1714; from which time till the death of William IV., both England and Hanover have had the same sovereign. The Salic law then conferred the crown on Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, fifth, but eldest surviving son of George III. The territory has been increased from time to time by the conquest or purchase of many adjoining districts; Bremenverden and Wildeshausen in 1719; the Hadeln-land in 1731, &c. George III. added Hohenstein and the bishopric of Osnabrück, which, by the treaty of Westphalia, was held by his house as a secularized bishopric, alternately with a Roman Catholic prelate.

In 1804 Prussia took possession of Hanover, but ceded it in the same year to France, and in 1808 it became a part of the kingdom of Westphalia. At the peace of 1813, it reverted to the king of England, and was much enlarged by the stipulations of the treaty of Vienna, and erected into a kingdom. On the definitive settlement of the kingdom the district of Lauenburg was ceded by Hanover, which obtained in return the bishopric of Hildesheim, the Principality of East Friesland, the districts of Lingen, Harlingen, &c. On the extinction of male heirs of the line of Hanover the Dukes of Brunswick will succeed to the sovereignty. In 1848, the king conceded many valuable rights to his subjects, and abolished several odious restrictions and disabilities.

#### OLDENBURG.

The principal part of the GRAND DUCHY OF OLDENBURG is situated to the left of the Weser, and is surrounded by the territory of Hanover, on all sides but the north, where it borders on the North Sea. It is generally a low country, but some heights, extending along the coast, protect it from the encroachments of the waters. The land on the banks is rich and fruitful, but the rest of the country is sandy and unproductive.

The Grand Duke also possesses the Principality of Lubeck, consisting of several parcels of land in Holstein, to the northward of the city of Lu-

beck; and the Principality of Birkenfeld, to the westward of the Rhine, adjoining the Coburg and Homburg allotments.

*Oldenburg*, upon the Hunte, is the capital of the state. Some manufactures and considerable trade are carried on. It contains several public institutions, and a museum of antiquities. Population, 8,000. *Eutin*, in Lubeck, situated on a lake of the same name, abounding in fish, has 2,700 inhabitants; and *Birkenfeld*, on the Nahe, has a population of 1,700. *Oberstein*, also on the Nahe, has 1,500 inhabitants, who manufacture and export a great quantity of jewels and precious stones: such as agates, chalcidony, cornelians, jaspers, and lapis-lazuli, made into ear-rings, snuff-boxes, seals, bracelets, and necklaces.

#### KNIPHAUSEN.

The LORDSHIP OF KNIPHAUSEN is a small territory in the north part of Oldenburg, and forms one of the sovereign states of the confederation, but without a vote in the Diet; its contingent being joined with that of the surrounding state. It belongs to the Dutch family of Bentinck, who have also large possessions in Holland.

*Kniphausen*, a castle, with about 50 inhabitants, is the Metropolis; but the prince usually resides at Varel.

#### MECHLENBURG.

The PRINCIPALITIES OF MECHLENBURG, possessed by one of the most ancient families of Europe, comprise:—1. The GRAND DUCHY OF MECHLENBURG-SCHWERIN; and, 2. The GRAND DUCHY OF MECHLENBURG-STRELITZ. The possessions of the Mechlenburg princes are bounded on the south by Hanover and Brandenburg; on the east by Pomerania; on the west by Lubeck and Lunenburg; and on the north by the Baltic Sea. Mechlenburg-Strelitz is a very small state, nearly six-sevenths of the whole belonging to Schwerin. The country consists of a large sandy plain, interspersed with forests and lakes, the latter of which are numerous, particularly in the neighborhood of Strelitz.

*Schwerin*, with 3,000 inhabitants, and *Strelitz*, with 6,000, are the respective capitals. The latter is built in the form of a star, with eight rays or streets, terminating at a common centre; and is noted for its fine collection of Slavonic antiquities.

*Ratzeburg*, at the western extremity of Mechlenburg, belongs partly to Strelitz and partly to Denmark.

The family of Mechlenburg has been divided into two branches since the middle of the 17th century. The heads of both, however, take the title of Grand Duke, with the addition of the name of their respective states.

#### LICHTENSTEIN.

The PRINCIPALITY OF LICHTENSTEIN is a very small territory, lying along the right bank of the Rhine, above the Boden-see. It consists of the two lordships of Vadutz and Shellenberg.

*Lichtenstein*, formerly called Vadutz, is the capital, and only town, with about 1,000 inhabitants. The Prince's residence is at Vienna, or at his Castle of Troppau, in Silesia.

## HANSE-TOWNS.

The HANSE-TOWNS, or free cities of Germany, now number only four, viz.: LUBECK, FRANKFORT, BREMEN, and HAMBURG. Formerly the Hanseatic League comprised nearly all the large cities, and extended into other countries.

LUBECK is built upon a hill, at the confluence of the rivers Wakenitz and Trave, to the east of Holstein. It is very much fallen from its ancient importance, but still possesses a considerable transit trade, and is the seat of the Supreme Court of Appeals for the four free cities. Its territory occupies about 150 square miles, and contains a population of 48,000; of which one-half resides in the city. *Travemund*, on the Baltic, is its shipping port. Regular steamboat communication is established between it and St. Petersburg, and other places.

FRANKFORT-ON-THE-MEYN occupies 90 square miles of territory, and contains 60,000 or 70,000 inhabitants. The city is a fine old town on the right bank of the Meyn, 20 miles east of its confluence with the Rhine. It is the capital of the German Confederation and residence of the Vicar or chief executive of the empire. The interior of the city has of late years undergone great improvements: the fortifications have been levelled, and their site converted into promenades. The suburbs are adorned with splendid villas; and the river is lined with capacious open quays, which, in some places, are as highly ornamented as those of the Seine at Paris. Frankfort enjoys considerable trade, and its two annual fairs are still much frequented. It has long formed a favorite centre of the banking transactions of Germany; and it is proposed to establish in Frankfort a central bank for all Germany. The town house contains the hall in which the emperor used to be elected by the delegates of the electors; and the original of the famous charter called the Golden Rule, granted by Charles IV. in 1355, to regulate the mode of electing the emperor, and the rights and duties of the provinces and states of the empire, is still preserved entire. The emperors, after election, used to make their public entry into Frankfort, and were crowned in the Dom-kirk, or cathedral, which still exists. Population about 40,000, including 5,000 Jews. The executive government of the city is invested in a senate of 42 members, from whom are chosen every two years, two burgomasters. The legislative assembly is composed of 85 citizens, elected annually, and a permanent commission of 60 members superintends the finances of the state. The Jews, though enjoying otherwise equality with Christians, cannot vote at elections, or hold any public office. Water from the mountains is copiously supplied to the city through a subterraneous aqueduct.

HAMBURG, the greatest commercial city in Germany, lies on the right bank of the Elbe, 70 miles from the sea. The old town is a dirty, gloomy place, but the new town presents a very different appearance. None of the public buildings, however, are remarkable. The Stadt-Haus is a large and heavy structure; and the Borsenhall, bank, admiralty, though well suited for their respective purposes, exhibit nothing striking in their architecture. The finest church is that of St. Michael, which has a tower 460 feet high. The river, opposite the city, is divided into several channels, with intervening islands; communication is kept up by steam ferries. The government is vested in a senate of 36 members, four of whom are burgomasters; four syndics, one prothonotary, one keeper of the records, and two

secretaries—all chosen by the citizens, who are formed for this purpose into five orders or classes. Justice is dispensed by three graduated courts—appeal lying from the lowest to the higher. The revenue is derived from imports, taxes, and a light customs' duty, and amounts annually to about \$750,000. The import trade of Hamburg is chiefly carried on by foreign vessels, and from its situation at the mouth of a navigable river of 500 miles, the city enjoys prodigious inland trade, and is necessarily the entrepôt for a great part of Eastern Prussia, Saxony and other adjacent states. Manufactures of various kinds also employ the citizens. Schools and charitable institutions are well supported; and the theatres, of which there are both German and French, provide ample means for intellectual recreation. Since the expulsion of the French, in 1814, Hamburg has more than doubled its population, which is now about 150,000. The burghesses are divided into two classes: the one class, the hereditary or active burghers, enjoy certain rights and privileges, while the others are restricted to certain prescribed branches of industry, and are subject to the payment of a tax. Strangers pay higher duties than the burghers, and cannot hold real estate in their own name. Jews are allowed to possess houses in certain quarters, but enjoy none of the rights of citizenship. Hamburg owes its independence to the mutual jealousy of its neighbors, the kings of Denmark and Prussia neither of whom will consent to the other getting so rich a prize, though they both covet it. *Cuxhaven*, with 800 inhabitants, and *Ritzbüttel* with 1,600, are situated in a small territory belonging to Hamburg, on the sea-coast, outside the mouth of the Elbe. The former is noted for sea-bathing, its lighthouse, and its harbor, from which steamships and packets sail regularly to Harwich, Amsterdam, London, and other places.

**BREMEN**, the ancient capital of the Hanseatic League, is situated at the confluence of the Wumme with the Weser, about 50 miles from the sea. It consists of an old and a new town, on opposite sides of the Weser: the former is gloomy and Dutch; but the latter contains some elegant buildings. The Dom-kirk, or cathedral, is reserved for the Lutherans, and the Calvinists, who form more than two-thirds of the population, have four parish churches. The government of the state is vested in a supreme council, the members of which are all Calvinists—the Lutherans being excluded not only from the council, but also from civic employments. This council governs the state, regulates commercial affairs, and even dispenses justice; but matters of great importance are referred to a council of elders and of the principal citizens, who thus form a kind of legislative assembly. Bremen has several flourishing manufactures of linens, cloths, hats, worsted stockings, tobacco, oil and glass. It is also noted for its beer, and its sugar-refineries, but its wealth and importance depend more on its immense commerce than on its manufacturing industry. Next to Hamburg it is the greatest entrepôt of German trade. In the small territory belonging to the town, there are the burgh of *Vegesack*, which forms the harbor of Bremen, and 35 villages; but large vessels stop at *Braacke*, about halfway down the Weser. The population of the town is about 42,000, and of the state 60,000. The citizens, some few years ago, purchased from the king of Hanover a piece of ground about three miles in circuit, 38 miles below Bremen, on which they have constructed *Bremenhafen*, already a solidly built and flourishing town. Here the Weser is so deep that the largest ships may reach this new port in safety. Bremenhafen is the German depôt of the United States' Ocean Mail Steam-ships, which sail from New-York monthly, touching at Southampton, both coming and going.

Uncertainty overclouds the early periods of German history, and fable too often supplies the place of authentic narrative. All that we know is, that it was peopled in very remote times, but nothing is more problematical than the origin of the inhabitants and the country whence they came. Ancient authors confound them under the several names of Celts, Scythians, and Celto-Scythians. However this may be, we learn from Tacitus that the ancient Germans were noble, magnanimous, and beneficent, employing their arms rather to repel invasion than to spread into other countries by conquest. Inspired with a natural love of liberty, they nobly withstood the Roman power, even in its greatest height. At this period, the Germans were formed into a vast number of small communities under chiefs, but in other respects united for mutual defence and protection. Nothing could be more detestable to this people than to view the aggressions of Rome, and hence arose wars between them and the Romans. The result was the annexation of a great portion of Germany as a Roman province. The Germans, however, soon regained their liberty, and made ample reprisals on their conquerors. In the sixth century Germany was invaded by the Franks, whose power gradually increased until the time of Charlemagne, who completed the conquest in 800, and added it to his empire. His successors, however, did not long enjoy the honor of the throne founded by their great ancestor, for in 888 the states assumed their original independence, and placed the imperial crown on the head of Arnolph, king of Bohemia; and from this period to 1806, Germany was considered as an elective monarchy. The princes of Saxony, Franconia, and Suabia, have successively swayed the imperial sceptre, but in 1440 it passed to the house of Hapsburg, with which it reposed till 1806, except for a short period after the death of Charles VI., when the Duke of Bavaria was placed on the throne.

Prior to the dissolution of the empire in 1806, Germany was parcelled out among nearly 300 sovereign princes or principalities, including in that number 50 free imperial cities, and these were, for certain purposes, arranged into NINE CIRCLES, viz.: *Suabia*, *Bavaria* and *Austria*, in the south; *Franconia* in the centre; the *Upper Rhine* and the *Lower Rhine* lying on both sides of that river, and extending eastward to the Weser; and *Westphalia*, *Lower Saxony*, and *Upper Saxony*, in the north. Besides these, *Bohemia*, *Moravia* and *Silesia* were included in the limits of the empire, but as they belonged exclusively to the emperor himself, they were not included in any of the administrative circles, which were established for the benefit and regulation of the minor princes. The electors, or princes, who had the privilege of electing the kaiser, or feudal chief of the empire, were:—the three archbishops of Mainz, Treves, and Cologne; the king of Bohemia; the duke of Bavaria; the pfalzgraf, or count palatine of the Rhine; the duke of Saxony; the margrave of Brandenburg; the duke of Brunswick-Luneburg (Hanover); and the landgrave of Hessen-Cassel. The electoral or princely dignity of the archbishops has been abolished. The king of Bohemia now takes the title of Emperor of Austria; the king of Bavaria represents the elector and also the pfalzgraf of the Rhine; the elector of Saxony is now king; the margrave of Brandenburg is king of Prussia; the duke of Brunswick-Luneburg is king of Hanover, and the landgrave of Hessen-Cassel remains landgrave still, but retains his title of elector, though the privilege of that dignity no longer exists.

The other sovereign states were nearly all swept away by the wars of the French Revolution, some of them were entirely abolished; the ecclesiastical principalities were secularized; and all the imperial free towns, except *four*,



were annexed to the dominions of neighboring princes. The secular princes of the empire, except the few who have been allowed to retain their sovereignty, have been *mediatized*, that is, deprived of their sovereignty and subjected to other princes; and of these, some possess larger estates than their more fortunate brethren, enjoying their revenues without the troubles attached to royalty. Of the mediatized princes the most wealthy are:—Prince Esterhazy, whose state is now subject to Bavaria, and who derives about \$900,000 a year from three square miles of territory, and less than 900 people; the Prince of Thurn and Taxis (annexed to Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and Hohenzollern,) who has a revenue of \$250,000, and the monopoly of post-routes; the Duke of Arenberg, (now subject to Hanover and Prussia,) who has \$375,000, &c.; and others, to the number of 99, whose former states on the aggregate covered only 7,036 square miles, and contained a population of about 980,000; and as these princes still retain the revenues of these states, no less a sum than £1,130,000 sterling, or five millions and a half of dollars, are annually drawn from the German laborer *de jure divino*! Such is Germany to-day.

The revolution which broke out in Paris in February, 1848, was not confined to that city, but spread widely over Europe, bearing along on its wings the great democratic idea. The states of Germany were, perhaps, more immediately moved than those of the extremes of Europe, and great changes have been made in almost every government of the country; and the empire, modified however in its forms, has been materially revived under the sanction of the National Diet, at Frankfort, and Arch-Duke John, of Austria, called to the chief executive office. The Diet is yet in session, (December, 1848;) and it is probable that before rising, it will enact laws for the guidance of the general government, and establish a fair imperial constitution, giving to the people those rights they have through ages sought to obtain from the hands of their several princes. The unity of Germany must raise the country in the scale of nations.

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## THE EMPIRE OF AUSTRIA.

THIS great empire is situated almost in the centre of Europe, between the parallels of 42° and 51° north, and between 8° 30' and 26° 30' west longitude. The configuration is irregular, but the territory forms a very compact mass, embracing a great diversity of soil and climate, and containing a heterogeneous assemblage of tribes and nations, which differ from each other in language, manners, laws, religion, and degree of civilization. Its greatest length is about 860 miles, and its greatest breadth, exclusive of Dalmatia, about 492 miles; the area of the whole being estimated at 257,368 square miles. The frontier line, which is mostly marked by natural boundaries, extends upwards of 4,250 miles, of which less than 80 miles is sea-coast.

The Austrian empire comprises six kingdoms, viz:—Hungary, with Sclavonia and Croatia; Bohemia, Galicia, and Lombardy and Venice; the Principality of Transylvania; the Duchy of Styria; the Margraviate of Moravia; and the County of Tyrol. The city of Cracow also forms a portion of the empire, having been seized upon by the Emperor, in 1846,

with the consent of the protecting powers. For administrative purposes, however, these, exclusive of Cracow, are arranged into 15 great provinces, the general statistics of which are exhibited in the annexed table:

PROVINCES.	Total Area in sq. miles.	Area within Germany.	Area without Germany.	Total Population	Population within Germany.	Population without Germany.	Pop. to sq. m.
LOWER AUSTRIA.....	7,663	7,663	.....	1,409,626	1,409,626	.....	244
UPPER AUSTRIA.....	7,416	7,416	.....	857,568	857,568	.....	153
TYROL.....	11,003	11,003	.....	839,755	839,755	.....	101
STYRIA.....	8,687	8,687	.....	975,309	975,309	.....	149
CARNIOLA AND CARINTHIA.	7,884	7,884	.....	759,541	759,541	.....	127
ILLYRIAN COAST.....	3,096	956	2,140	481,189	151,520	330,569	206
BOHEMIA.....	20,245	20,245	.....	4,174,168	4,174,168	.....	273
MORAVIA AND SILESIA....	10,268	10,268	.....	2,166,638	2,166,638	.....	280
GALICIA.....	33,566	1,857	31,709	4,797,243	350,000	4,447,243	188
HUNGARY.....	89,095	.....	89,095	12,096,202	.....	12,096,202	180
TRANSYLVANIA.....	21,426	.....	21,426	2,079,000	.....	2,079,000	129
MILITARY FRONTIER.....	15,213	.....	15,213	1,203,605	.....	1,203,605	105
DALMATIA.....	5,076	.....	5,076	394,028	.....	394,028	103
LOMBARDY.....	8,396	.....	8,396	2,547,976	.....	2,547,976	403
VENICE.....	9,154	.....	9,154	2,168,553	.....	2,168,553	314
TOTAL.....	258,188	75,979	192,209	36,950,401	11,684,125	25,267,176	189

The aspect of the country, so far as it lies within the limits of Germany, has been alluded to in a former section. The remaining portions will be treated of when we notice the topography of the several regions. The climate is very various. The countries in the north, including Bohemia, Moravia, Galicia, &c., have a climate resembling that of the north of France; and the agricultural products are very similar. The middle region comprehends Upper and Lower Austria, Hungary, Transylvania, &c., and has a milder climate, and in many parts vines and maize are cultivated. In Lombardy and Venice, and the Illyrian coast, the winters are short, and the soil productive of the finest of fruits, oil and wine. It is proper to add, however, that the influence of altitude is nowhere so apparent as in the several regions of the Austrian empire. The extensive tracts adjacent to the Carpathians, and the lofty barriers between Bohemia and Moravia, partake of all the rigor of the north, while Galicia and the interior of Bohemia, though lying north of these, are considerably warmer. The average fall of rain is much greater in the mountains than on the plains. In Vienna and the low-lying tracts, 28 inches are a frequent average; but in the mountains the average often amounts to 40 inches and upwards. More than a third of the productive soil of the empire is said to be occupied by forests.

The inhabitants of the Austrian empire may be arranged under five classes, viz:—I. *Slavonians*, comprising more than half the whole population, and subdivided into several distinct races, as the Tschekkes of Bohemia, the Slowacks of Moravia and Hungary; the Poles of Galicia, the Rusniaks of Galicia and Hungary, the Wendes of Styria, Carniola, Carinthia, &c. II. *Deutsch* or Germans, who occupy Austria, and are thinly scattered over the whole empire. III. *Græco-Latins*, in the Italian kingdoms, including also the Wallachians, who form the greater portion in the Bukowine, and are very numerous in Transylvania, Hungary, and the Military Frontier. IV. *Magyars*, who are the dominant races in Hungary and Transylvania. V. Beside the above, there are a great number of *Jews*, in the west, and Zingnies or Gipsies, Armenians and Greeks in the east.

The average annual increase of population in the empire is about 1.193 per cent., thus appearing to double itself in  $51\frac{1}{2}$  years. The populations of the above races may be thus stated—Sclavonians, 18,500,000 ; Germans, 6,000,000 ; Italians, 5,300,000 ; Wallachians, 900,000 ; Magyars, 4,500,000 ; Armenians, Albanians, Gypsies, &c., 150,000, and Jews, 667,139.

The Roman Catholic is the dominant religion, but the Greek Church prevails in the eastern provinces. Calvinism is also professed by many in Hungary and Transylvania, and in the latter some Unitarians or Socinians are to be found. Mennonites, Jews, and other sectaries are to be met with throughout the empire. The Roman Catholics number 25,704,119 ; Greeks, 6,529,300 ; Protestants, 3,536,849 ; Jews, 667,139 ; all others, 48,022. The military, whose religion is not given, numbers 464,972. Every sort of occupations and official places are open to all without respect to creed. The emperor is in all but the name, head of the church, and Popery is very limited in its influence, and since the virtual suppression of the monasteries by Joseph II., the regular clergy have been subject to the secular. The church services are now read in the vernacular, except the mass, which is still mumbled in Latin. There are eleven Roman Catholic archbishops, one Greek (united) archbishop, one Greek (schismatic) archbishop, and one Armenian archbishop. The Catholic Church has besides 59 bishops with chapters and consistories, and 43 abbots of richly endowed monasteries in Austria, Styria, Bohemia, Illyria, and Moravia. In Hungary there are 22 endowed abbots, 114 titular abbots, 41 endowed and 29 titular prebendaries, and 23 college foundations. Transylvania has three titular abbots and 150 monasteries and convents, and Galicia 70 monasteries. The Greek United Church has one archbishop and one bishop in Galicia, and five bishops in Hungary. The Armenian Catholic Church has an archbishop at Lemberg. The Greek Church has an archbishop, with 10 bishops and 60 deacons. The Lutherans are under ten, and the Calvinists under nine superintendants or bishops. The Unitarians have one superintendant for 164 parishes. The great principle which pervades the whole ecclesiastical government of the empire, is the supremacy of the civil power over the persons, the property, the beneficiary appointments, and even the spiritual functions of the clergy of all denominations. Every person promulgating a papal bull, edict, or ordinance, without the previous sanction of the crown, is subject to confiscation of property and imprisonment ; and no Austrian subject can be excommunicated by any ecclesiastical authority, or even by the Pope himself, without the emperor's consent. Patronage belongs partly to the crown, and partly to the bishops, corporations, and private individuals. A strict surveillance is had over the conduct of the ministers ; and in cases of irreclaimable immorality, the offenders are removed to a kind of monastic penitentiary, and kept on short allowance for a given period, or for life.

The system of primary and elementary schools in all the Austrian states is nearly uniform. In the German portion, the schools are more numerous and efficient than in Hungary, and the more remote parts of the empire. In the lowest grade of schools, the "Volks-Schulen," instruction is confined to reading, writing, and accounts. Above these are the "Gymnasien," or high schools, for the classics and mathematics, and commercial academies in the towns ; and universities, of which there are nine, viz. : at Prague, Vienna, Padua, Pavia, Lemberg, Gratz, Olmutz, Innsbruck, and Pesth. The clergy have the general supervision of all schools, and the whole are regulated with a view to strict uniformity of system, and to their

connection with some one or more of the religious professions recognized by the state. At the head of the department is the Hof-Studien-Commission, at Vienna: a board of lay commissioners, which is in constant communication with the religious consistories; and which examines and reports on every point connected with instruction, profane or sacred, civil or military, but has no legislative power or authority of any kind. The principle of instruction which pervades all the schools is not of the most beneficent kind; the tendency of the system is to check the expansion of the mental powers, by confining the attention of the scholars to a prescribed routine of verbal tuition; and the result is, that the pupils leave school with a very small amount of actual knowledge; but having been imbued with the doctrines and opinions which are sanctioned by the government, they are found to be ready instruments in carrying into effect its most obnoxious measures. In spite, however, of the prejudices imbibed with their early instruction, the Austrians are far from being that bigoted and slavish race *a priori* deduction would suggest.

On the 25th April, 1848, the Emperor Ferdinand gave a new constitution to the empire, the principal provisions of which are herewith briefly summed up. All the countries belonging to the empire form one constitutional, indivisible monarchy. Nationality and language is granted to all races. The crown remains hereditary; the heir to the throne is of age on attaining his eighteenth year; but in cases of minority or incapacity, a regency is to be established by special law. The emperor is irresponsible, but his ordinances, to be of force, must be signed by a responsible minister. The executive power belongs to the emperor alone, and he exercises the legislative in connection with the Diet. He nominates to all public offices; decrees all dignities, orders, and titles of nobility; exercises the command in chief by land and sea; declares war and concludes peace and treaties with foreign governments, but all treaties require the ratification of the Diet; and he has the right of pardon, except in cases where a crown minister is implicated. The entire administration of justice is under the jurisdiction of the emperor, and all proceedings are had in his name. No law is in force until sanctioned by the emperor. He convokes, prorogues, and dissolves the Diet; but in the latter case a new Diet must be called within three months thereafter.

Liberty of conscience and of person is guaranteed to all citizens. No arrests can be made without form of law; and within 24 hours every person arrested must be interrogated and brought up for trial. Liberty of speech and of the press is guaranteed, and the censorship is abolished; the secrecy of letters is inviolable; the right of petition and of forming civil associations is also guaranteed; and the liberty of emigration. Every citizen may become a freeholder, may follow any branch of trade, and may take any office or dignity. The law is equal to every citizen. Judges cannot be dismissed, except by virtue of a judgment given by proper judicial authority. The laws are to be publicly and orally administered. Trial by jury is to be introduced. The free exercise of worship is assured to all, the Jews included.

The Diet, which is to exercise the legislative functions in concert with the emperor, is to be divided into two chambers: a Senate and Chamber of Deputies. The duration of a Diet is fixed at five years, with an annual convocation. The "Senate" consists of the princes of the royal house, who have attained their 24th year; of members nominated for life by the

emperor; and of 150 members, elected by the principal landed-proprietors from their own body, and for the full period of the Diet. The "Chamber of Deputies" is to be composed of 383 members; the apportionment being based on population, and the representation of all civic interests. Each chamber elects its own officers. Members must vote in person; and any pledge made to their constituents is not to hold good. The sessions are to be public, except in certain cases. Members are free from arrest; must receive pay; but cannot occupy any other official station without vacating their seats.

The Diet which immediately succeeds each new accession to the throne, fixes the civil list of the emperor for the duration of his reign. The allowances to members of the imperial family are also under the control of the Diet. The annual authority for keeping up a standing army, for raising taxes and tithes, and for the carrying out of the state laws, the alienation of state property, the examination and passing of the state budget of receipts and payments, cannot take place but by the laws; and all projects of laws on these heads must originate in the Chamber of Deputies. Petitions are only presented by members. The number of members constituting a quorum is 30 in the Senate, and 60 in the Chamber of Deputies. Any project of law for the completion, extension, or modification of the constitution, must, before becoming a law, be passed by two-thirds of all present; but, in ordinary cases, an actual majority is sufficient. The government is represented in the chambers by responsible ministers, who, if members, have a casting vote. Each chamber fixes the order of its own affairs.

In the different countries there are provincial states for defending the interests of the provinces, and such as existed at the promulgation of the constitution still retain their organization and attributions. Municipal bodies are provided for the circles and districts of each province. Communal institutions are based on the principle that all the interests of the commune and its members may be represented by them. The National Guard will be organized throughout the whole monarchy: it is subordinate to the civil tribunals, and each member, as well as all public officers, must swear fidelity to the emperor and the constitution. The oath of the army to the constitution is taken in the oath to the colours.

The present Empire of Austria was founded in 1806, when the Holy Roman (German) Empire having been dissolved by Napoleon, the Emperor Francis II. assumed the new title of Emperor of Austria. The imperial family are the descendants of Francis, Duke of Lorraine, who married Maria Teresa, the eldest daughter and heiress of the Emperor Charles VI., the last male of the house of Hapsburg, and was through her influence elected emperor in 1745. Dying in 1765, he was succeeded successively by his two sons, Joseph I., who died in 1790, and Leopold I., who died in 1792. The latter was succeeded by Francis I., who, as already stated, was the last Emperor of Germauy, and first of Austria. Maria Teresa died in 1780, and was succeeded in her hereditary states by her son, the Emperor Joseph, who then became, in right of his mother, King of Hungary and Bohemia, Arch-duke of Austria, &c. Ferdinand succeeded his father Francis in 1835, but being incapacitated for his high duties by mental and bodily weakness, the government was managed by a council until early in 1848, when the revolutionary movements compelled the members, of which Prince Clement von Metternich-Winneburg was the most able, to absquatulate, and the governmental functions fell to the lot of a popular ministry

On the 25th April, the emperor and his ministers promulgated a constitution, the leading features of which have already been given. The turbulence of faction increased from this time, and the country became a scene of anarchy and disorganization, nation fighting against nation, and party against party. Cities were burnt and pillaged, and ultimately the Emperor was obliged to fly from the capital and take refuge in his Slavonic dominions. Finding himself powerless, and unable longer to cope with the disturbed state of matters, he finally abdicated his throne in favor of his nephew, Joseph Francis, son of the Archduke Francis Charles, on the second of December, 1848. The change of rulers, however, to satisfy the people, must be accompanied with a change of measures, and whether or not this will be granted by the present emperor, time alone can inform us.

It has not been usual for the government to publish officially any statement of the financial condition of the country, but it is generally understood among the bankers and capitalists of Vienna, that the revenue amounts annually to about 130,000,000 florins, or \$65,000,000, and the expenditure, exclusive of the war department, to about 87,500,000 florins, of which 40,000,000 pays the interest on the national debt, 44,000,000 the charges for civil government, and 3,500,000 the civil list of the imperial family. The total of the national debt bearing interest is about 650,000,000 florins. The income is derived from direct and indirect taxes, monopolies, domains, and Hungarian revenue, the last consisting of tax on peasant lands, the *toleration tax on the Jews*, bishop's tax for fortresses (!) &c. The expenses of the military department is annually more than 60,000,000 florins.

Austria has taken so prominent a part in the wars of the last and present centuries, that the nature and extent of her military resources are subjects of great interest. In the last years of the late war (1814-15,) the numerical force of the Austrian army, including troops of all descriptions, amounted to 650,000 men, but the peace establishment amounts only to 272,204 men, viz.: cavalry, 44,970; infantry, 196,377; and artillery, including engineers, sappers and miners, artificers, pontoons and train, 30,877. Every male, between the ages of 19 and 29 years, are subject to do duty in the line, and those above the latter age, and not fifty, are liable to serve in the Landwehr or militia. None but the nobility and clergy are excepted. The Military Frontier is protected by troops raised by the great land-owners and free cities of that province; about 30,000 men are constantly in the service. Otherwise, the whole empire is divided into twelve military provinces, nearly coterminate with the civil divisions. The great military schools of the empire are those of Vienna, Wiener-Neustadt, Waitzen in Hungary, Olmutz, Gratz, Milan, &c. There is a veterinary school at Vienna, and an academy for educating gun-smiths at Steyer, in Upper Austria.

The Austrian navy is still small. In 1839, the number of vessels in ordinary and in service were as annexed:

	<i>Ships of</i> <i>the line.</i>					
	<i>Frigates.</i>	<i>Sloops.</i>	<i>Brigs.</i>	<i>Schooners.</i>	<i>Total.</i>	
In Ordinary.....	8.....	5.....	2.....	1.....	16	
In Commission.....	3.....	2.....	5.....	7.....	17	
Total.....	8	8	4	6	7	33

and a number of minor vessels. Venice is the chief naval station, but it is the intention of government to transfer the navy to the harbor of Pola, in Istria. The seamen are chiefly Venetians, Istrians, and Dalmatians: the

number on service in 1839 was 2,326; besides a regiment of marine artillery of 945 men, and a batallion of marines of 1,276 men.

Since the loss of Flanders the Austrian mercantile navy has been confined to the Adriatic ports, and is of very modern date. It is now, however, very respectable, and the laws for the regulation of the merchant service excellent. The greater number of vessels, probably two-thirds, belong to Trieste; the remainder to Venice, Fiume, Ragusa, and the Bocche de Cataro. The following statement of the commerce of Austria, which includes traffic by land and sea for a series of years, is derived from official documents:

<i>Years.</i>	<i>Import for consumption.</i>	<i>Export of own products.</i>
1831.....	£6,880,945.....	£7,949,083
1835.....	9,144,532.....	8,890,322
1840.....	11,118,688.....	10,850,870
1841.....	10,588,930.....	11,232,034
1842.....	11,065,775.....	10,855,907
1843.....	11,142,085.....	10,411,395
1844.....	11,448,500.....	10,961,800

This table exhibits a rapid increase in Austrian commerce, and in point of fact, the value of the exports amounts to several millions more—the valuation of silks, &c., being made at considerable more than 50 per cent. below their real worth. This table, however, includes the commerce both by sea and land. The maritime division exhibits the greatest increase, having averaged about  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. increase per annum, for the last few years exhibited, while land commerce has only increased about four per cent per annum. During the year 1841, 25,146 vessels, of 847,000 tons, entered the ports of Austria. In 1844, 29,094 vessels, of 1,005,000 tons, arrived, being an increase of 18 per cent. in the number of vessels, and 15 per cent. on the amount of tonnage. This statement shows an average of burden of  $48\frac{1}{2}$  tons of the vessels entered, and the value of merchandise exchanged by this traffic amounted to £13 6s. 8d. per ton. The importance of the Austrian maritime traffic can only be appreciated by referring to the extent of her sea-coast, being not more than 60 geographical miles, each of which would be interested to the extent of 17,043 tons burden, and £222,845 value. The duty on goods imported into Austria, averages  $9\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. varying from 3 to 50 per cent. The contraband trade is very active on the frontier, and is said to amount to at least £2,000,000 per annum. So extensive is the trade, that insurance companies will take risks at 5 to 30 per cent. for the safe delivery of goods at Prague, Vienna, and other places.

The mineral products of the Austrian dominions are large. Iron ore and steel abound in the mountains, and the production is only limited by the want of fuel to smelt them. In all the provinces where iron ore is abundant, large fields of coal are found, but it is only lately that this mineral has been used for smelting. The iron trade, however, has been greatly injured by the interference of government, and none are allowed to work a mine unless possessed of either a forest or bed of coal. The native steel of Austria is much sought after. The empire abounds in copper, zinc, and sulphur, and various other metals and minerals of commercial value, especially rock-salt. The total products of all the mines of all sorts, in 1837, is set down at the following amounts: gold, 6,005 marcs; silver, 96,207 marcs; quicksilver, 3,363 cwt.;\* tin, 1,357 cwt.; copper, 49,092 cwt.; lead and lead

\* Austrian cwt.—123 English pounds

ore, 116,377 cwt. ; litharge, 24,689 cwt. ; spelter, 3,707 cwt. ; zinc, 1,717 cwt. ; raw iron, 1,890,835 cwt. ; cast iron, 268,790 cwt. ; antimony, 3,350 cwt. ; alum, 24,189 cwt. ; sulphate of copper, 4,482 cwt. ; copperas, 46,516 cwt. ; cobalt, 2,654 cwt. ; arsenic, 1,406 cwt. ; sulphur, 19,213 cwt. ; coals, 5,055,948 cwt. ; manganese, 225 cwt., and graphite, 34,660 cwt.

The rich, well-watered plains of Lombardy and the Danube, present the finest soils in the world, and every portion of the empire is well adapted to a various agriculture. The quality of the land, and the degree of climate and elevation, are ever varying, and the eye wanders over a perpetual succession of rich crops of grain, luscious vineyards and olive groves, intermingling with the lemon, orange, and an extensive variety of the fruits peculiar to each locality. The whole country teems with agricultural wealth. The proportions of land devoted to the several cultures, is as follows : land under tillage, .34 ; vineyards, orchards and gardens, .3 ; land in grass, .17 ; forests, plantations, copses, .26 ; poor lands, and lands totally unproductive, .20. The bulk of the produce consists of wheat, barley, oats, rye, peas, beans, potatoes, flax and hemp. The northern part of the empire is too cold for vines ; but in the centre, the culture is extensive, and wine is sold in large quantities for home consumption. The port is far inferior to that obtained from France, and generally the export of wines from Austria is limited to small quantities of choice wines, such as the well-known "Tokay," which is raised on the last chain of the Carpathians, near the district of Zemplin. Few persons are aware how small a quantity of the wines bearing this name are the *real stuff* ; even in Vienna, not one-tenth sold as such is genuine ; but it is said, that those who have once tasted it, can never forget its flavor and body.

Manufactures have, in the last and present ages, received considerable extension in the Austrian dominions. They are still on a comparatively low footing, when compared with those of England and the United States : being conducted in small factories, the requisite division of labor so necessary to perfection, is altogether wanting. Woollens, linens, hardware, and of late years, cottons, are made in almost every village. Weaving, and other sedentary work is performed in the cottages, as formerly among the farm-women of New-England. Linens are woven in every province of the empire ; but the finest are made in Lower Austria, Moravia, and Bohemia. As to hardware, the mines supply an ample store of material ; the manufacture of which is done partly on the spot, and partly in the larger towns. Bohemia is remarkable for its glass works. Hides from the vast plains of Hungary and Transylvania are an article of export. Linen paper is made extensively, and of very fine quality, in consequence of the cheapness of the raw material. As a manufacturing nation, Austria has one great advantage—the cheapness of labor ; but its obstacles are great, especially as regards the cotton manufacture, in its distance from the raw material, which, whether landed at Hamburg or Trieste, must be conveyed by land. The inferiority of the machinery is also paramount. The general system of roads, however, is very complete, and since the introduction of rail-roads, which will, no doubt, be extended throughout the country, the facilities of trade have been greatly inconvenienced.

German geographers divide all the countries which compose the Austrian empire into four great divisions, viz : the German provinces, the Polish provinces, the Hungarian provinces, and the Italian provinces. The German provinces comprise Upper and Lower Austria, Styria, Carinthia



and Carniola, Tyrol, Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia, and the Illyrian coast; the Polish comprise the kingdom of Galicia; the Hungarian comprise Hungary, Transylvania, the Military Frontier, and Dalmatia; and the Italian include the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. The first three we shall now describe; the last we shall reserve for its proper place in our description of Italy.

#### GERMAN AUSTRIA.

The ARCHDUCHY OF AUSTRIA (Oesterreich) consists of two nearly equal parts, distinguished as Upper and Lower Austria, and divided by the river Ens. LOWER AUSTRIA formed the nucleus of the present empire. This district contains the capital, and is, besides, the seat of extensive manufactures. In the mountainous parts of the province are mines of iron, coal and rock-salt, but the wealth derived from these is secondary to that of the agricultural products of the fertile valley of the Ens. Here the various grains are raised in abundance, and in the warmer situations maize and wines are cultivated. UPPER AUSTRIA produces large crops of corn, but is too cold for the vine. Pastures are extensive both in the valleys and on the hills. The sides of the mountains are covered with forests, and lumbering forms a principal branch of industry. The inhabitants are a mixture of Deutsch and Slaves, but the high Deutsch is the only language spoken, but the dialect is different from that of Saxony. The people are almost all Roman Catholics.

WIEN, (Vienna,) the capital of Austria and of the empire, is situated on an arm of the Danube to the south of the main stream, at the mouth of the rivulet Wien, about 400 feet above the level of the sea. The city proper is small when compared with its suburbs. The strong fortifications which formerly surrounded the city have been razed and converted into lofty gardens, which afford delightful promenades and facilities for air and exercise. The external circuit of the suburbs is 14 miles. The streets of the city are narrow, the squares small, and the houses lofty. The suburbs are not so splendidly built, but are far better laid out and more elevated. Within the narrow limits of the city, which may be walked around in 50 minutes, is contained every object of interest or importance—the palace, the offices of government, the residences of the higher classes, the best shops, the public museums, libraries and galleries, and, with one exception, all the good hotels. The “Kaiser-Burg,” or Imperial Palace, an immense building of irregular form, presents, nevertheless, a rare magnificence and beauty of architecture. The churches are splendid in their grey habiliments of centuries. Vienna is most liberally supplied with scientific and charitable institutions. The University dates from 1237, and is one of the best in Europe, having 42 professors. No city in the world can supply more gratification to the antiquarian and historical students; the imperial library contains 420,000 volumes, and the museums are filled with antique and historical collections of medals, armor and other interesting objects. Vienna is likewise the most important manufacturing town in the empire, and more than 60,000 persons find employment in different branches of industry. The theatres, the opera, the restaurateurs, are all excellent. The streets are crowded with an active, bustling population, and the police regulations are admirable. Vienna has been the scene of many historical events. In 1271 it was taken by the Emperor Frederick II., and again by Rudolph I. in 1297. It was vainly besieged by the Hungarians in 1477, but was obliged to surrender eight years after to Matthias, king of Hungary and Bohemia. In 1683 it was again besieged and closely invested by the Turks under

**Kara Mustapha**, and relieved at last only by the arrival of a Polish army under John Sobieski, who defeated the Turks with great slaughter under the very walls of the city. The head of Mustapha is still exhibited to visitors at the arsenal. In 1805 it surrendered to Napoleon, and again in 1809, after a short resistance. In 1848 it became the scene of domestic rebellion, and suffered from the lawless conduct of the rebels. Six miles east of the city is the island of Lobau, in the Danube, where the French were encamped for six weeks; and opposite to it, near the north bank of the river, are the villages of Aspern, Essling and Wagram, where the desperate battles were fought which decided at that time the fate of the Austrian Empire. Population, including the suburbs, about 350,000. *Neustadt* is considered the finest town in Lower Austria, and communicates with the capital by a canal 40 miles in length. This, with a number of neighboring towns, is chiefly engaged in the manufacture of wool and iron. Population, 8,000. *Linz* or *Lintz*, is the capital of Upper Austria, and contains 24,000 inhabitants. It communicates with Bohemia by a railway. A number of mineral springs are found in this district, some of which are highly esteemed for their medicinal properties.

**TYROL** lies east of Switzerland and south of Bavaria, and is traversed in every direction by mountains, some of which are very high, while the low ground consists not of plains, but of a succession of long valleys, in which the climate is comparatively warm, and the soil productive in corn and wine. The ingenuity of the people in cultivating the slopes is admirable. Waterfalls are numerous, and serve as motive power to machinery. Minerals are abundant but not sought for; and spinning, knitting and weaving are the only species of manufacture known. The Tyrolese are great sportsmen, and despise the restraints of civilized life. They have ever been good soldiers and faithful adherents to the imperial house. Their language is German.

*Innsbruck*, the capital, lies in a valley on the banks of the Inn, surrounded by snow-clad mountains. The town contains many fine buildings and ancient relics. Its university and museum are respectable. Population, 11,000. The other towns of Tyrol are *Hall*, noted for its salt works, mint and gymnasium, and *Schwaz*, for its silver and copper mines. *Trent*, on the Adige, is famous in church history. In its church of St. Mary the Great, the celebrated council held its sittings between 1545 and 1563. It has some silk works. In the valley of Groden carved woodwork is extensively made and sent to every country in Europe, and even to the United States.

**STYRIA** (Steyermark) is very mountainous, but the ground becomes more level as it recedes from the Alps. There is a corresponding difference in temperature and products. The hills covered with forests are used for pasturage, while in the lowlands every variety of grain, even maize, is cultivated. Potatoes have been introduced, and add greatly to the comforts of the people. Coal and iron are abundant. Salt is also obtained in large quantities. One half of the people are Germans and the remainder Wends or Slavonians. Both profess the Roman Catholic religion.

*Gratz* is the capital of Styria. This is a respectable town, and one of the largest trading cities in the empire. Population, 50,000. *Voitzberg*, west of Gratz, is a very industrious town, and exports largely of its manufactures, &c.

CARINTHIA (Karnthen) adjoins Tyrol, and like it, consists of a succession of high mountains, separated by narrow valleys, many of which contain lakes. Mines of iron, lead and quicksilver are here deposited. CARNIOLA, (Krain) the adjacent province, is mountainous in the north, but has large and fertile plains in the south. Mines of quicksilver are found, and a richer variety of agricultural products give indications of a warmer sun than in Carinthia. About one tenth of the people are Germans, the remainder being Slavonians. These two sections comprise the government of Laybach, one of the two into which the kingdom of Illyria is divided. The calcareous mountains of Carinthia and Carniola abound in caverns, more than 1,000 of which are said to have been noticed in a region of no great extent to the eastward of Hagerfurth.

*Laybach* is the capital of the kingdom of Illyria, and has some considerable transit trade and 12,000 inhabitants. *Clagenfurth* is the capital of Carinthia. The people manufacture silk and cloth, and carry on a large transit trade. Population, 10,000. *Neustædtl*, *Adelsburg*, *Villach*, &c., are respectable towns.

The ILLYRIAN COAST (or *Kustenland*), consists chiefly of the peninsula of Istria, with a small portion of adjoining territory. Its surface towards the sea is low and marshy, rising inland into bare and rocky mountains. The fig, the mulberry and olive flourishes around Trieste; and in the valleys, the people devote themselves to feeding silk worms. The hills, with one exception, are rarely above 200 feet high, but are heaped together in a strange and fantastic manner, with the most singular and continually varying forms, exhibiting everywhere the most picturesque landscape. This territory forms the government of Trieste, a second division of the kingdom of Illyria.

*Trieste*, situated at the south-east corner of the gulf to which it gives its name, at the head of the Adriatic sea, is a most important commercial town. There is nothing very remarkable in the conveniences or appearance of the city. The exchange and theatre are good buildings, and there are some excellent schools and charitable institutions. Population, about 76,000. Trieste is a free port, and contains a royal school of navigation. Great efforts have been lately made to improve and extend the harbor. Ship-building is extensively engaged in, and the manufacture of soap, with the ropewalks and sugar-refineries, give employment to several hundreds. The city is surrounded with delightful gardens and elegant villas. The origin of Trieste is lost in the remotest antiquity, but it remained of little importance until 1719, when Charles V. made it a free port, and invited foreigners to settle in it. From that time its trade has been gradually increasing, and it is now one of the most important ports of the Mediterranean. The average value of the imports is about \$37,000,000, and of the exports, consisting mostly of the raw produce of the Austrian dominions, about \$28,000,000. Tobacco, salt, saltpetre and gunpowder are prohibited articles, being government monopolies, and can only be imported by special license. Trieste has no natural harbor, but art has in some degree supplied the want by two great works, executed in the reign of Maria Teresa. The first of these is the great canal, which penetrates the city 1,200 feet and is 110 feet wide; and vessels drawing not more than 10 or 11 feet water may safely moor and take in and discharge their cargoes in the very centre of the town, and opposite the great ranges of stores that line the quays. The other is the Teresian-mole, a mass of regular masonry, about 2,200 feet long and 60 feet

wide, carried along a projecting ridge of low half-sunk rocks, and terminating with an irregular platform, on which are erected a fortress and lighthouse. Within this mole vessels can lie in deep water. There are in Trieste two institutions that have proved of the greatest importance in a commercial point of view—the Exchange and Austrian Lloyd's. The Exchange forms a central point of union for the whole commercial public. The Austrian Lloyd's originated in 1833, and is divided into two principal sections; the one of which employs itself in collecting every kind of information on navigation and commerce, and the other forms a steam-navigation company. In the neighborhood of Trieste are a number of towns and villages of considerable population, and engaged in various callings collateral with commerce.

**BOHEMIA**, or Bohmen, (the country of the Boii, who possessed it prior to the Christian era,) is comprised in a large valley surrounded on every side by lofty mountains. Its form is that of an irregular square. The geology of the mountains exhibits a granitic formation, intermixed with gneiss and other primitive rocks, underlying coal and red sand-stone, over which again are strata of green sand-stone and brown coal. Its area is about 20,000 square miles. The climate is rendered by the physical features of the country more severe than its latitude would indicate, but much depends on altitude. The soil is generally good, but the science of agriculture is little known. The chief products are wheat, barley, oats, rye, potatoes, hemp, flax and hops, and in some warm sheltered situations, vines. The pastures are extensive. The forests are of great extent, and large quantities of timber are deported on the Elbe and the Moldau. Bohemia is rich in minerals; gold is found in the beds of many of the streams; and there are mines of tin, silver, copper, lead, zinc, arsenic, mercury and iron, the last being found in all the hills. Mineral springs are numerous. It likewise produces several kinds of precious stones, such as amethyst, topaz, sapphire, &c.; also jasper, marble, millstone, and the koalin, used for the manufacture of porcelain. The annual produce of the more valuable minerals has been stated thus: silver 2,400 marcs, cobalt 395 tons, tin 495, lead 695, iron 19,732 tons.

The manufactures of Bohemia are very flourishing. They consist chiefly of woollens, linens and leather, but comprise also cottons, hardware and glass. The foreign trade with northern Germany is maintained by the Elbe, but with most other states by land carriage. The roads are now in good order, and railroads have been constructed in several directions.

The population has greatly increased of late years, and for the last twenty years the average annual increase has been 1.17 per cent. About one-third the people are Germans, and the majority remaining are of Slave origin, and named Tchekkes or Czeches. The Germans conduct all the trade and manufactures, while the Tchekkes limit their industry to agriculture. The middle classes speak both the German and Tchekkish languages, but the lower classes use the latter, particularly in the more remote districts. The Bohemians, however, have determined to restore it to its proper place as the public language, and have induced the government to consent to the establishment of academies and institutions for the encouragement of Bohemian literature. The sovereignty has been held by Austria since 1526, and the Bohemians are perhaps the most faithful of the emperor's subjects. There are, however, provincial states, but their powers have been all but nominal. Bohemia contributes full \$10,000,000 to the imperial revenue,

and maintains a force, regular and militia, of 50,000 men. The Bohemian nobles have large estates, and possess the greater portion of the lands, which are cultivated for their behoof by the peasants or serfs, who form the bulk of the population.

For administrative purposes Bohemia is divided into 16 circles, viz:—Rakonitz, Beraun, Kaurzim, Bunzlau, Bidschow, Konigingratz, Chrudim, Czaslau, Tabor, Budweis, Prachin, Klattau, Pilsen, Ellenbogen, Saaltz, and Leitmeritz; and the Captainate of Prague. Bohemia is governed directly by an “Oberst-burg-graf” or Lord Lieutenant.

*Prag* or Prague, the capital of the kingdom, situated on the Moldau, near the centre of Bohemia, is a large and generally well-built town, with a population exceeding 130,000. Prague is divided into four parts: the Altstadt and Neustadt, on the right bank of the river, and the Kleinseite and Hradschin, on the left. The Altstadt, (old town,) the original Prague, contains the buildings of the university, archbishopric and municipality; the principal churches and public edifices; the theatres and all the best shops. It is the district of trade and general business, and its narrow streets and grand open irregular “Place,” are crowded with a dense and active population. The Neustadt, (new town,) separated from the Altstadt only by a wide street on the site of the ancient ditch, has generally spacious and rectangular streets, but the houses are poor, and the residences of mechanics and the laboring classes. The Kleinseite, (small side,) which occupies a small level space on the bank of the river, is the aristocratic district, and contains the palaces of the ancient Bohemian nobles, and on a lofty ridge rising about it is the Hradschin, containing the vast palace of the Bohemian kings, and several other magnificent buildings. The principal buildings worthy of notice are the Burg or Palace, the town house, archiepiscopal seminary, military hospital, the cathedral, a large building of great antiquity, several other churches and palaces, and the two fine bridges across the Moldau, which is here nearly a third of a mile in width. There are several scientific and literary institutions, the principal of which is the university, of great celebrity in the middle ages, and recently restored. There are also considerable manufactures of various kinds, and the city is the principal depôt for the trade of the kingdom.

*Carlsbad*, 72 miles W. by N. of Prague, in a deep and narrow gorge, through which the Tepel, an affluent of the Eger, flows, is celebrated for its fine baths, frequented by strangers from all parts of Europe, and for its steel and iron works. Population, 3,000. The mineral waters rise from different sources, and are all identical in composition, but differ considerably in temperature; the lowest being 100° Fahr., and the highest 165°. The waters are strongly saliferous and contain a small trace of iron. They are said to be eminently efficacious in cases of organic obstructions and functional derangement. The principal spring is the “Sprudel,” which rises from a calcareous sinter formed by its own deposits.

The other principal towns are:—*Reichenberg*, a manufacturing place, with 10,000 inhabitants; *Frautenau*, with 3,000; *Landskron*, noted for its linen factories; *Kuttenberg*, a mining centre; *Budweis*, *Krumau*, *Pilsen*, *Eger*, *Ivachimstahl*, *Toplitz*, famous for its baths, *Rumburg*, &c. *Warnsdorf*, *Neuforstwald*, *Hirchensland*, and *Steinschonau*, are large manufacturing villages. *Gitschin*, *Hohenelbe*, and *Neuwelt*, are also celebrated for their manufactures.

MORAVIA and AUSTRIAN SILESIA, (Mœhren and Schlesien,) are situated

to the south-east of Bohemia, between it and Hungary, and form an area of more than 10,000 square miles. Most of the country is covered with mountains, enclosing fruitful valleys. The general elevation of the country is between 500 and 900 feet, with an inclination to the south, and the waters are chiefly carried in that direction to the Danube by the large river Morava or March. It is a most prolific agricultural country, and has a dense population. The majority of the people are of Slavonic origin and Roman Catholics, and form one of the most industrious nations of Europe. Manufactures are extensively carried on, and with the exception of the Vienna districts, no part of the empire contributes more to its commercial prosperity. Moravia and Silesia form one government, which is divided into eight circles, viz.: Brunn, Iglan, Znaym, Hradisch, Olmutz, and Prerau, in Moravia, and Troppau and Teschen, in Silesia.

*Brunn*, the capital, 70 miles north of Vienna, may be regarded as the chief woollen mart of the empire. The town is well built, and contains the courts and public buildings of the province. Population, 40,000. Silk, cotton, soap, and tobacco, are also largely manufactured, and at a village, about a mile from the city, there is a large manufactory of porcelain. About fourteen miles to the eastward, is the town of *Austerlitz*, which derives its celebrity from the great battle in which Napoleon defeated the Austro-Russian army in December, 1805.

*Olmutz*, (Holomauk of the Slavonians,) formerly the capital, is a fortified city of considerable importance, and has many public institutions of great value. Population, 19,000. This was a city of refuge to the emperor during the disturbances at Vienna in 1848. There are a number of other towns in Moravia, with populations varying from 14,000 downwards.

In Silesia is *Troppau*, noted for its cloths and arms, and for the fine palace of the Prince of Lichtenstein. Population, 12,000. *Teschen* is a small but flourishing commercial town, of 7,000 inhabitants.

#### AUSTRIAN POLAND.

This country is all comprised under the government of THE KINGDOM OF GALICIA, (Galizien of the German—Haliczia of the Poles,) and is divided into 19 circles, viz.: Lemberg, Wadowice, Bochnia, Sandec, Jaslo, Tarnow, Rzeszow, Sanok, Sambos, Przmyrl, Zolkiew, Zloczow, Tarnopol, Brzezani, Stry, Stanislawow, Czortkow, Kolomea, and Czernowitz (Bukowine.)

Galicia formed part of the Kingdom of Poland, and in its physical aspect resembles the rest of that country, consisting of a succession of plains, with few elevations, except in the south, where it is bordered by the Carpathian mountains. The country is drained by the Dniester, the Pruth, and the San; and the Vistula bounds it on the north-west. The climate is temperate, and even warm. The chief products are grain and wine, and the pasturage is extensive. Agriculture, however, is in a backward state, and the peasantry, until lately serfs, have still the indolent habits of the slave. Its inland situation and bad roads prevent exportation from the country. The people are Poles, and though Popery is the established religion, most of them belong to the Greek Church. The trade of the country is chiefly in the hands of the Jews, whose total number approaches half a million. The manufactures and mechanic arts are in almost as backward a state as agriculture. The Bukowine was formerly a part of Moldavia, and was ceded by the Turks to Austria in 1777—it contains an area of 3,700 square miles, and a population of 260,000. The western part, adjoining the Carpathian mountains, is high and barren, but the rest of the country is in

general fertile. The forests of oak are of great extent, and seem to have given name to the district; "*buckow*," in Slavonic, signifying an oak.

*Lemberg*, (Lwow, or Leopol,) formerly the capital of Red Russia, and now the chief town of Galicia, is a large and well-built place, upon the banks of the Peltew, an affluent of the Bug. It has a university and several other literary foundations. The population numbering 60,000, of which one-third are Jews, is distinguished for its industry, and carries on a considerable trade with Russia, Turkey, and other neighboring countries. The suburbs are large and well-built, and the surrounding country is very agreeable.

*Brody*, with 22,000 inhabitants, is the entrepôt of the trade of Galicia with Poland, Russia, and Turkey. *Drochobicz* is the third town in the kingdom. *Czernowitz*, capital of the Bukowine, near the Pruth, has 7,000 inhabitants, noted for their industry and flourishing trade. *Bochnia*, with 5,000 inhabitants, and *Wieliczka* with 6,000, are both noted for their extensive salt mines. The mines are the property of the emperor, and produce a large revenue. The other chief towns are the capitals of the circles, and generally bear the same names.

#### HUNGARY.

The whole eastern portion of the Austrian dominions south of the Carpathian Mountains is known under the general name of Hungary. It comprehends four distinct provinces, or governments, viz. : 1. The Kingdom of Hungary, including Slavonia and Croatia ; 2. Transylvania ; 3. the Military Frontier ; and 4. Dalmatia and Albania.

The KINGDOM OF HUNGARY, (including the provinces of Slavonia and Croatia,) has well-defined boundaries; the greater portion being formed by the Carpathian Mountains, and by various branches of the Alps, which, extending into the interior to a considerable distance, form a number of beautiful valleys, watered by fine rivers and streamlets, which diversify the landscape. In the interior the country sinks into vast plains, called "*Puszta*," which indicate by their appearance and the nature of the soil, that the whole space they occupy was formerly the bed of an inland sea, or of a great lake. A ridge of hills, running diagonally north-east and south-west across the country, divide it into two great portions. On the mountains the soil is dry and sterile; on the terraces, which surround them, it is moderate in fertility; and a considerable portion of the plains consist of deep sand, easily worked, and yielding average crops. In some parts, however, they are nearly barren, and the sand hills vary their position with every blast. In the neighborhood of the Danube, Theiss, and the Temes, the ground is boggy, and much exposed to inundations. The remainder of the plains consists of a rich, black loam, of almost incredible fertility; but is thinly-peopled, wretchedly-cultivated, and the least accessible portion of the country. Perhaps one-half of the kingdom is incapable of cultivation, while less than one-eighth part is under tillage, and only a fifth occupied by pastures. The rivers are:—the Danube, and its tributaries: the Drave, the Save, and several others; the Tisza or Theiss; the Bega; Temes; Karasch; and Nera. The Balaton-Tava or Platten-see, and the Ferto-Tava or Neuseidler-see, are the largest lakes. A large number of islands are formed in the Danube, some of which are of considerable size. The climate of Hungary varies considerably with locality. The products of the higher grounds, which are cold and raw, are oats,

barley, and rye ; in the plains, where the climate is essentially that of latitude, wheat and maize ; and in the alluvial soil of the rivers, rice. The cultivation of the vine is carried on extensively ; and also hemp, flax, and tobacco. The natural pastures are excellent, and prodigious flocks of sheep feed on the plains, between the Danube and Theiss. Swine are also abundant ; and about 300,000 are annually exported. The silk-worm also claims great attention ; and in the Bannat of Temeswar, where the mulberry is extensively cultivated, a large quantity of silk is produced.

SLAVONIA forms a long, narrow peninsula, between the Save and the Drave, traversed by a chain of mountains covered with forests. It is only in the low grounds, on the banks of the rivers, that the temperature is sufficiently warm for the cultivation of maize and fine fruits. The higher districts produce wheat, barley, flax, hemp, and madder.

CROATIA is marked by physical features similar to those of Upper Austria and Carinthia, and consists of ranges of hills, with narrow, intervening valleys. The climate varies with the altitude, but is never extreme. The mountains are clothed with vast forests, and consist, in accordance with elevation, of oak, elm, beech, and fir, with other pines.

The northern part of Hungary is rich in mines, of which about two-thirds belong to the government. The products are gold and silver in a small quantity ; copper, lead, antimony, quicksilver, iron, coal, and salt. The richest mines are at Kremnitz, which, though in some degree exhausted, still produce about 15,000 marcs of silver, and 250 of gold, annually. Coal is mined in a number of places along the Danube. There are other mines worked, chiefly for copper, tin, lead, and zinc ; but these are less productive than those of the north. Mineral springs abound ; and in many parts of the plains are soda lakes, which dry up in summer, and leave the ground encrusted with natron. Hungary likewise produces precious stones : as the amethyst, agate, jasper, Hungarian diamonds, and garnets.

The Magyars constitute the dominant race ; but there are various tribes and colonies of German and Slavonic origin. The aristocracy and nobility are Magyars. This race forms at least one-third the population, and inhabits chiefly the central districts, while the mountainous ranges are left to the Slaves. The Germans occupy the west. The Magyars are descended from a tribe of uncertain origin, from the east of the Volga, and which settled in Hungary under a leader named Almus, in the 9th century. They are a handsome and spirited race ; and, though short in stature, remarkably muscular. Their language is clear and concise. They are much attached to it ; and have recently had it acknowledged by the Diet as the public language of the country, instead of the Latin, which, however, is known by all. The Slaves are chiefly found in Croatia, and other mountain districts, north and south. They are darker in complexion than the Magyars, but well-formed and graceful. This race is distinguished by several names, and they differ in their several dialects. The Germans form no inconsiderable a body in Hungary, and are distinguished as Saxons and Suabians. The smaller settlers in Hungary are the Wallachians, the Macedonians or New Greeks ; some French, Italians, and numbers of Turks, Jews, and Armenians. The Jews alone, number about 190,000.

The people are divided into nobles, citizens, and peasants. The nobles are divided into two classes, one of which, the "Magnates," bear titles



corresponding to those of the Peers in England; while the other class, comprising the great body of the nobles, are only "Eidemen," (idle men?) or squires. The Magnates have personally a seat and vote in the Diet; and in this respect differ from the Eidemen, who are entitled to appear only by their representatives. The higher clergy are also considered as nobles. The nobility alone can possess the free lands or baronies, and are exempt from taxes, tithes, &c.; but on the other hand, they are bound to perform personal military service, when the Diet decrees a general rising, or "insurrection," as it is called. The estates of the Magnates are entailed, and descend to the eldest son, with few exceptions; but, generally, the estates of the inferior nobles are divided among all the sons, the result of which is to produce a swarm of poor nobles, by whom the country is literally infested. The citizens or burghers are the inhabitants of those towns that hold directly of the crown; and their privileges, collectively, are nearly similar to those of the nobility. The peasants generally are serfs, (*astricti glebæ*;) but as such their condition is modified, and they may of their own will become burghers, and are allowed to sell or bequeath their farms. These privileges were granted by Maria Teresa; but as a counterpoise, the peasants are the only parties who pay taxes, tithes, or are liable to have soldiers quartered on them. Indeed, it may be said, that they alone bear the public burdens of the state. They are also incapable of commencing suits against the nobles or burghers. Some districts, however, have special immunities and privileges; and there the peasant is lord of the soil—his deputies sit in the Diet; but with the noble, he is obliged to do personal military service, and also to bear his portion of the public burdens with the serfs. This class, nevertheless, is the most prosperous and happy of the Hungarian peasantry.

Four Christian sects enjoy equal civil rights, and have similar legal establishments. These are the Roman Catholic church, the orthodox Greek church, and the Protestants adhering to the two Confessions of Augsburg and Geneva. The great bulk of the people, however, are Roman Catholics, who are divided into two classes: one of which uses the Latin ritual, and the other the Greek, from which circumstance they are called the United Greeks, (i. e. Greeks in union with the Catholic Church.) The Latin Catholics amount to about 5,300,000, and the United Greeks to 650,000. They are under the spiritual superintendence of three archbishops and seventeen bishops, aided by 6,345 priests. The Archbishop of Gran is Primate of Hungary; and has a salary variously stated, at from £60,000 to £100,000 per annum! The other two archbishops have salaries little inferior in amount; but they are heavily taxed for the singular purposes of keeping the fortresses of Hungary in repair, and at their death the king appropriates to himself the greater part of that they have accumulated during their lives. The Orthodox Greek Church numbers about 1,500,000 adherents; and is under one archbishop and seven bishops, with 2,122 pastors, and 2,781 lay ecclesiastics, a species of monastic order. The Protestant Reformed Church, on the Geneva model, includes a population of about 1,250,000, almost wholly Magyars, who are under the four superintendencies of Pesth, Papa, Miskolez, and Debreczin. Under these are 34 synods, 1,359 churches, and 1,407 ministers. The Lutheran Church consists of about 660,000 members, under four bishops or superintendents, residing at Presburg, Neusohl, Oedenburg, and Teisscholz. Under these are 35 consistories, 487 parish churches, and 518 ministers.

Besides these there are a few Armenians and Mahometans. The Jews have 342 synagogues, each with one rabbi. Each sect has its universities, colleges, and schools; and education is more generally diffused than in most other European nations; but education is little encouraged among the peasantry, except by the Protestants, who have primary schools in each of their parishes. A number of schools and gymnasia, however, are maintained by the state, and by the burghers in the cities. The observatories of Ofen and Erlau are very respectable institutions.

The government is a feudal sovereignty, vested in a hereditary king or queen, and a Diet, composed of the magnates and ecclesiastics, and representatives of the minor nobility, citizens and burghers. The crown at present belongs to Austria; but in case of a failure of heirs it is to be disposed of by the Diet. The constitution is based on the Golden Bull of King Andreas II., dated 1222, which secured to the privileged classes their ancient rights, but left the peasantry in a state of servitude. The executive belongs to the king. He is the source of all titles and offices. He receives the revenues of all vacant ecclesiastical benefices, and is heir to the property of such noble families as become extinct. He has full surveillance over the churches and schools. The king must be of the Catholic religion; and must, within six months after his accession to the throne, swear before the assembled states to maintain their privileges, to leave the crown of St. Stephen within the kingdom, &c. The government is conducted directly by the Palatine, with the nominal assistance of a council appointed by the king; but, in fact, all orders on important matters issue from the imperial government, and pass through the Hungarian State Chancery, at Vienna. The king, at the present period, excepts from his coronation oath one of its important clauses, viz. the right of the subjects to offer resistance in the case of misgovernment on the part of the king; and in 1848 this principle was virtually abrogated, by the emperor's sending into Hungary, to put down a rising which his own tyranny had evoked, a large force under Prince Jellachich.

The States of Hungary consist of:—1. The prelates of the Roman and Greek churches. 2. The temporal barons and magnates, the high bailiffs of the provinces, and the Counts and independent noble proprietors of estates. 3. The Nobility or Knights, who do not attend personally, but choose two deputies for each county; and 4. The Deputies of the royal towns. The purposes for which the states assemble are:—the coronation of a king, the election of a Palatine, the admission to or exclusion of nobles or cities from their rank, the granting of subsidies and the imposition of taxes, and the framing of new laws, or rather the giving their assent to such laws as the king may enact. By the constitution, the states ought to be convened every three (or five) years at least, or oftener if circumstances require it; but of these circumstances the king alone is the judge. The Diet does not assemble in regular session, but remains sitting till all the business is finished; so that a new election takes place for every Diet. The states meet in two chambers, or "Tables." The Magnates' Table, consisting of the 1st and 2d classes; and the States' Table, consisting of the 3d and 4th classes, as above. The deputies of the towns have only the right of speaking, having been deprived of the right of voting by the nobles, on account of their subserviency to the king. But though the States meet in two chambers, they vote in four bodies, and the absolute majority of those present determine each question in that body. If the king and three of these bodies concur, the project becomes a law. Each of the 52 counties

(*varmegye*) has also a Diet, in which its own affairs are discussed and regulated, and to which appeals may be made from the baronial courts. When the General Diet is to be assembled, the summons of the king states the purposes for which it is to meet to the sub-Diets; and thus these local legislatures have an opportunity of discussing the matters beforehand, and of instructing their deputies how to vote; and these are, properly speaking, only delegates sent to express the opinion of their constituents. No project of a new law originates with any of the states; and, in fact, by the general and tacit consent of all parties, the General Diet used to be assembled as seldom as possible. During Maria Teresa's long reign of forty years, it was called only twice; Joseph II. never summoned a Diet at all, but ruled as absolute king; and during the present century there was no meeting of the Diet until 1825; but it has assembled regularly since, and has assumed that important station in the government the people's representatives ought of right to do.

In revenues, as in all other branches of government, Hungary is a totally distinct kingdom, and partakes in no way of the general taxation of the empire. The Diet furnishes an army of 64,000 men, and grants for its support the fixed sum of 5,000,000 florins, which is raised by a sort of land tax on the peasant cultivators. To this sum may be added about 160,000 florins as a toleration tax from the Jews; about 150,000 florins paid from the Episcopal benefices for the support of fortifications, and 16,000 florins levied on the Zips towns. These form the whole amount of direct taxes, and are raised in the several counties by their own officers and transmitted to the royal receivers. Besides these, however, Hungary furnishes some portion of the indirect imperial revenues, under the heads of customs, stamps, lotteries, &c.; but upon the whole, her fiscal contributions, considered in reference to her numerical population, are very far below that of the German and Italian provinces. Of the amount of local taxation it is difficult, if not impossible, to ascertain any account.

Productive industry in Hungary, in all its departments, is in a very primitive state. Agriculture is not known as a science, and all farming implements are rude and uncouth. Rotation of crops is never thought of. Barley is rarely found in any part of the country, and green crops, except amongst a few agriculturists who have adopted a better system, are completely neglected. The manufactures are alike in an infant state. The principal staples manufactured are coarse cloths, wood-ware for furniture, musical instruments and toys. The spinning of flax is a domestic manufacture, carried on in the family of almost every peasant. There are also several woollen factories, but these produce only coarse cloths, unsuited for ought except peasants' wear. The manufactures of hardware, and especially steel goods, are excellent in quality but clumsy in form. Other manufactures have an existence, and that is all that can be said. Hungary in fact is not a manufacturing country. Of its mines we have spoken before. Linseed oil, turpentine, corn-spirits, cordials, Hungary balsam, refined saltpetre and pearl ashes, are the other principal products of Hungarian industry.

Hungary has only one port: that of Fiume, and, as a consequence, much of its foreign commerce must be carried on through other states. Austria, that derives little revenue otherwise from this country, has surrounded it with a cordon of custom houses, where duties are collected on every article that passes. This and the high rate of land carriage, conspire to depress Hungarian commerce and obstruct its foreign trade. The principal foreign trade

is with Poland, Silesia and the north of Italy. The port of Fiume is the only outlet for more distant countries. The introduction, however, of steam navigation on the Danube has made that river available; but physical and political hindrances to this outlet have yet to be removed before this country can be much benefited by it. Hungary abounds in exportable natural productions, while on the contrary it is in want of every article of manufacturing industry.

The inland trade is more important, and has its centre at Pesth, which has four great annual fairs. From this centre the trade diverges into four great branches, viz: towards Galicia, Austrian Germany, Transylvania and the Turkish dominions. In all the great towns along the lines annual fairs are held, which are frequented by vast numbers of persons from the adjoining countries. And there are besides in Hungary 1,600 places where annual fairs of minor importance are held. Though the roads are bad, yet great facilities to trade are afforded by the rivers, several of which are navigable for vessels of considerable burden. The principal articles exported are the products of the soil and live cattle; various minerals, &c. The imports consist of colonial produce, linen, cotton and woollen articles for clothing, and a few foreign luxuries. The greater part of the trade is carried on through the Jews, who, from their command of ready money in a country where that commodity is scarce, enjoy peculiar facilities.

The Kingdom of Hungary is divided into four great provinces or circles, and two independent circles, all of which are subdivided into "*varmegye*" (*gespans*, Germ,) or counties. It also includes five districts with peculiar privileges.

<i>Circles.</i>	<i>Names of Counties.</i>
CIRCLE ON THIS SIDE OF THE DANUBE.....	Pesth; Bacs; Neograd; Sohl; Honth; Gran Bars; Neutra; Presburg; Trentsin; Thur otz; Arva, and Liptau.....13
CIRCLE BEYOND THE DANUBE.....	Wieselburg; Oedenburg; Raab; Komorn; Stuhlweissenburg; Veszprim; Eisenburg; Salad; Schumeg; Tolna, and Baranya...11
CIRCLE ON THIS SIDE OF THE THEISS.....	Zips; Goemoer; Hevesch; Borschod; Torna; Aba-ujvar; Sarosch; Zemplin; Unghtar, and Beregh.....10
CIRCLE BEYOND THE THEISS.....	Marmarosch; Ugotsch; Szathmar; Szaboltsch; Bihar; Bekesch; Csongrad; Csanad; Krasso; Temesch, and Toronthall.....11
KINGDOM OF SCLAVONIA.....	Veroece; Possega, and Syrmien..... 3
KINGDOM OF CROATIA.....	Agram; Warasdin, and Kreuz..... 3
DISTRICTS WITH PECULIAR PRIVILEGES.....	Hungarian shore; Jazygre; (Jaszag;) Little Kumania; Great Kumania, and Hayduck Territory.

It may here be observed that the capital or chief town of each of these counties is generally of the same name. We will now proceed to describe a few of the most remarkable.

*Buda* (called by the Germans "*Ofen*" (Oven,) in allusion to the temperature of its mineral waters,) the capital, is situated on the right bank of the Danube, near the centre of the kingdom. As a town it has little to recommend it, but an imposing appearance from the river, being built partly at the base and partly along the ascent of a range of low but picturesque hills, which open into a sort of glen. It contains the Palatine's palace, the arsenal, the palaces of several magnates, and the observatory of the university of Pesth built upon the Blocksberg. The town is commanded and overlooked by the castle, a grave, stern and feudal-looking pile, in

which is deposited the palladium of Hungary, the crown consecrated by Pope Sylvester, and presented by him to the King St. Stephen, A. D. 1000. Buda communicates by a bridge of boats with *Pesth*, an elegant modern town, in a low sandy plain, built on a regular plan with every attention to architectural propriety, and containing wide, clean, well paved streets, shops amply furnished with goods, many handsome public edifices, and a fine quay, which extends for a mile along the Danube. The bridge of boats is about to be superseded by a grand suspension bridge, the estimated cost of which is \$2,500,000. *Pesth* is a fashionable resort of the Magyar nobility, and it is evidently the wish of the nation to make it their capital and to support it as such. *Pesth* is also the centre of the inland trade of Hungary. The great plain around the city bears the name of *Rakos-mezo*, or the Field of *Rakos*, and is celebrated in Hungarian history as the scene of many of those wild Diets, where all the nobles used to assemble in council, armed and mounted as for war, which, indeed, was not unfrequently the termination of their discussions. The population of both towns is about 130,000. At a distance of four miles from Buda is *Alt-Buda*, on the site of the ancient Aquincum, where Attila, king of the Huns, held his court.

*Presburg*, (Posony, *Hung*—Bespurek, *Slav*.) is a pretty town, with an air of much cleanliness and comfort, situated on the left bank of the Danube, 35 miles east of Vienna. It was for a long time the capital of Hungary, and is overlooked by the royal castle of the Hungarian kings, boldly situated on the last peak of the lower Carpathians. Since 1784 it has ceased to be the capital, but the Diet still assembles there, and the solemn inauguration or coronation of the king takes place upon a hill in the neighborhood. It possesses an academy or minor university, and several other institutions; has a bridge of boats, 330 paces long, across the Danube, leading to some fine and shady public promenades; and, though much deserted and falling to decay, it still contains about 45,000 inhabitants. A few miles up the river lies the village of *Theben*, the holiday resort of the citizens.

The estates of the Esterhazy family are, perhaps, the best examples we could present, in order to illustrate the wealth possessed by some of the Hungarian nobles. Their possessions about the Neuseidler-See were first granted to them by the Emperor Ferdinand I., in 1622, for the services rendered by the Count Nicolaus Esterhazy, which were greatly instrumental in securing the Austrian family on the throne. These estates are said to equal the Kingdom of Wurtemberg in size, and to contain 130 villages, 40 towns, and 34 castles, and the annual revenue amounts to about \$750,000, and is capable of considerable increase. The present prince is the largest sheep-owner in Hungary. His flock of merinoes is always kept up to the number of 250,000, with a shepherd for every one hundred. The prince has long resided in London as Austrian ambassador to her Britannic Majesty.

*Essek*, the seat of the tribunal of appeal for the three counties of Slavonia, is of importance also for its commerce, and still more for its fortifications, and immense barracks and casemates, said to be capable of containing 3,000 men. Population, 10,000.

*Agram*, or *Zagrab*, consists of three towns, situated on the amphitheatric slope of a range of well-wooded hills, and is the residence of the Ban, or Viceroy of Croatia. It has a number of public buildings, &c. Population, 17,000.

*Fiume*, the capital of the Hungarian Littoral, is a small picturesque seaport town. The new part of the town is built with considerable elegance, and contains several fine buildings. *Fiume* is a fine port, and has several

manufactures, but its commerce is very insignificant, being confined almost exclusively to rags, staves, corn, and tobacco. It is connected with Karlstadt, in Croatia, by the Louisenstrasse, or Via Ludovica, a superb road 89 miles long, passing over mountains and ravines, and formed by a joint-stock company of five individuals, at a cost of about \$1,000,000. The neighborhood of Fiume is delightful. Overhanging the town are the remains of an ancient castle, and near it is the spot, marked by a column, where the *holy house of Lorretto, borne hither by angels from Nazareth, remained for three years and seven months!* It is still a great resort of deluded pilgrims. *Buccari* and *Porto Re* may be considered as appendages to Fiume, from which the former is distant about five miles, and the latter two or three more to the south-east. *Buccari* is an oval, land-locked basin, surrounded by precipitous hills, with a depth of 20 to 24 fathoms in the middle, and 12 at its entrance, which faces S. S. W. On its eastern side, at a few yards distant from the shore, fountains of fresh water bubble up with great force, and form a series of little fresh-water whirlpools in the midst of the salt-water. *Porto Re* is also a land-locked basin, with a depth of 14 fathoms at its narrow entrance, which faces west, and is only half a mile from the entrance of *Buccari*. It affords a perfect shelter from every wind. The Hungarians have a strong desire to make it their national naval arsenal, but it is too small for such a purpose, and is absolutely without fresh-water.

The Magyars made their first appearance in Hungary A. D. 894, under a leader named *Almus*; and by the year 900, the people who then possessed it were extirpated or subdued by him or his son *Arphad*. This chief and his descendants assumed the title of duke, and in the year 973 Duke *Geysa*, and some thousands of his chief people, embraced the Christian faith. *Waik*, the son of *Geysa*, assumed at his baptism the name of *Stephen*, and for his success in converting his subjects, and extirpating heathenism, was canonized after his death. He sent an embassy to the Pope, *Sylvester II.*, from whom he obtained a crown, the one so carefully preserved, with the royal title; and thus commenced the Kingdom of Hungary, in A. D. 1000. *Stephen* founded numerous churches, convents, and schools. He is said likewise to have given the Magyars a political constitution, but his laws are all lost or forgotten. The crown remained with the family of *Arphad* till the 14th century. At length, in 1527, the Archduke *Ferdinand*, of Austria, was elected king, and his descendants have possessed the kingdom ever since.

TRANSYLVANIA, (*Siebenbergen*, *Germ*—*Erdely-Orszag*, *Magyar*,) lies to the south-east of Hungary, adjoining Wallachia and Moldavia, and has an area exceeding 20,000 square miles. Its surface is very diversified, consisting alternately of mountains and valleys, intermixed with numerous small hills. The climate is unstable, and the seasons extreme. The soil is generally poor, badly cultivated, but it is well watered and finely adapted for the cultivation of the vine. The forests are very extensive, and occupy more than one-third part of the country. Minerals are abundant, and as various in character. The gold mines are in the south-west, and are particularly interesting as being the richest in tellurium of any in Europe.

The people consist of four principal races, besides Jews, Gipsies, Greeks, and Bulgarians. These are the Magyars, in the north-west; *Szeklers*, (*Sicules*,) along the eastern frontier; *Sachsens*, in the south; and *Wallacks* or *Wallachians*, who, though they form one-half the population, have no fixed allotment of territory, but are most numerous in the central and eastern districts. The first three races only are represented in the Diet. Transyl-

vania has four established religions, but the prevailing one is that of the Greek Church, the tenets of which are professed by three-fourths of the population, while the Protestants amount to only 400,000, and the Catholics to half that number. It is only among the mountains of Szeklerland that Unitarianism prevails; their total number in Transylvania is reckoned at 47,000. The political constitution is very similar to that of Hungary, but the emperor may be said to wield in this country more absolute power than in any other portion of his dominions. The annual revenue is estimated at about \$2,500,000; the produce of the gold mines at 2,500 marcs, equal to \$450,000, and of the silver mines at 5,000 marcs, or \$60,000.

Transylvania contains twenty-five sedes or counties, and four districts, arranged into three general divisions, namely:

MAGYARLAND, (Magyarok-resze,) divided into	11 counties and 2 districts.
SZEKLERLAND, (Szekelyek-resze,)	" 5 " "
SACHSENLAND, (Szaszok-resze,)	" 9 " "

*Klausenburg*, (Koloswar, *Magy*—Klus, *Wall*.) situated near a gorge of the Little Szamos river, is a small city, but of some importance as the seat of the general government of Transylvania, and of the Magyar portion of Transylvanians. It contains several colleges and a Catholic lyceum. Population, 21,000. *Szamos-Ujvar* is inhabited by Armenians, from which circumstance it has obtained its German name of Armenienstadt; and *Maros-Ujvar* is noted for its salt mines, the most extensive in the country. In the district around *Karlsburg* are the richest gold mines of the empire.

*Maros-Vasarhely*, (Neumarkt,) is the capital of the Szeklerland, and seat of the highest legal tribunal of Transylvania. It is noted chiefly for its fine library. Population, 10,000.

*Hermannstadt* is the chief town of the Sachsenland, and in a financial point of view of all Transylvania, and the head quarters of the commander-in-chief of the Transylvanian portion of the Military Frontier. It is also the see of the Greek bishop, and contains many fine buildings, devoted to scientific and literary purposes. Its overland trade was, until of late years, very extensive. Population, 18,000. *Kronstadt*, in the south-east corner of the country, is the largest, most populous, and most industrious town in Transylvania. It is the seat of a Chamber of Commerce, composed of the wealthiest Greek merchants. Its inhabitants number 36,000. To the south by east of Hermannstadt is the mountain pass of Rotherthurm, (Red-tower,) through which the river Aluta rushes down to the plains of Wallachia, and which is one of the most romantic valleys connecting Transylvania with that country.

#### THE MILITARY FRONTIER.

The Military Frontier is a long and narrow tract of country, extending from the Bukowine, in the east, to the shores of the Adriatic, on the west. When the successes of Prince Eugene had obliged the Turks to cede the country to Austria, a constitution adapted to a frontier country was framed for it, and has ever since continued in force. The inhabitants, instead of paying taxes, are obliged to give personal service in the field. Every man is liable to military duty, and has assigned to him a certain portion of land, which is cultivated by his family, but the ground belongs to the government, and the occupants are merely tenants in common. They form in short a great military colony, and are governed by military officers. The whole is under a Commander-in-chief, whose head-quarters are at the fortress of Peterwaradein; but the fortresses and castles along the frontier, such as

**Peterwaradein, Hermannstadt, Semlin, Brodt, Gradisca, &c.** are garrisoned by imperial troops, each with a distinct commandant and peculiar jurisdiction

The government is divided into counties, each of which is required, even in time of peace, to keep under arms two battalions of 1,200 men, while in time of war the levy is increased to four battalions, and in case of emergency the emperor has the right to order out the whole male population. If these troops are marched off to Italy, or elsewhere, the old men and boys perform the frontier duty. Every man in his turn is obliged to take the out-post upon the frontier, along the military cordon, established to protect the country against the predatory incursions of the Turks, and the entrance of persons suspected of the plague. Along the whole line guard-houses have been built, sufficiently near to communicate with each other, and when a river intervenes they are built on pontoons. Each guard-house is large enough to domicile twelve men, who keep a sharp lookout during the day from its top, and at night push forward their sentries, and so dispose them that each shall be within easy hail of those to the right and left. Behind this chain are the guard-houses of the officers, furnished with bells and other means of alarm, whereby, in case of extreme danger, the inhabitants of the whole line might be under arms in less than four hours. No traveller can pass the line without presenting himself at the nearest station. The consequence of this extreme vigilance is that no commercial intercourse takes place between Austria and Turkey, but at certain points fixed upon for the purpose; and that smugglers and plague infected persons can only pass by eluding the notice of the guards or forcing the sentries.

The government is divided into four generalates, viz. :—1. The “United Generalate of Karlstadt-Warasdin, and the Bannat of Croatia,” divided into eight regiments, and including the towns of *Agram, Segnaor, Zeng, Carlopago, Belovar, Plasky, Petrinia*, and *Hoctainizea*;—2. The “Generalate of Slavonia,” divided into three regiments, and one battalion of “Tschaikistes,” and including the towns of *Peterwaradein, Semlin, Karlowitz, Brodt, Old Gradisca, New Gradisca, Tittel*;—3. The “Generalate of the Bannat of Temeswar,” divided into two regiments, and including the towns of *Temeswar, Pancsova, Karansebes, Weisskirchen*, and *Mehadia*;—and 4. The “Generalate of Transylvania,” divided into five regiments, and including the towns of *Hermannstadt, Kesdi-Vasarhely, &c.*

*Peterwaradein*, the capital, is a strong fortress, built on an isolated hill, on the south bank of the Danube, 170 miles S. by E. of Buda. It is a most formidable military position, its batteries sweeping every approach by land and water, and is so extensive as to be capable of receiving a garrison of 10,000 men. It communicates with Neusatz, on the opposite bank, by a bridge of boats, and both towns contain together 20,000 inhabitants. *Semlin* occupies the angle formed by the junction of the Danube and the Save, and is one of those localities which nature herself has marked out for a town. It is a mean and dirty looking place, however, situated in the midst of a marsh. It is no longer fortified, but contains a quarantine establishment, as a protection from the plague. The increase of steam navigation on both the rivers, will, in all probability, soon make Semlin one of the principal commercial towns of Hungary. *Karlowitz*, 7 or 8 miles south of Peterwaradein, is a considerable town of 6,000 inhabitants. *Tittel*, on the Theiss, not far from its confluence with the Danube, has several ship-yards, and was formerly a Roman station. *Orsova*, on the border of Wallachia, is a steam boat and quarantine station at the head of the navigable channel of the



Danube. *Mehadia* has mineral springs. *Pancsova*, on the left bank of the Danube, not far from Semlin, is a considerable trading town of 9,000 inhabitants. *Karansebes* is a small market town, to the east of which is the "Irongate Pass" into Transylvania, and through which a Roman military road formerly led into Dacia. *Ruskburg*, 7 miles north of the pass, is the seat of a great iron foundry and of rich mines of silver, lead and copper, which have been recently discovered. *Brod* is on the Save. *New-Gradisca* is a town of 3,000 inhabitants, in an extremely picturesque situation, within a mile of the frontier.

## DALMATIA.

The KINGDOM OF DALMATIA consists of a long narrow tract of mountainous country and a number of large islands along the north-eastern coast of the Adriatic Sea. The mountains are covered with forests, and there are also beautiful and fertile valleys. The agricultural products, maize, vines, olives and silks, are proofs of a genial climate. The country is rich in iron mines and marble quarries, but as yet they have been little wrought. No part of Europe abounds more in good harbors. The Kingdom is divided into four circles.

<i>Circles.</i>	<i>Towns.</i>	<i>Islands.</i>
ZARA.....	Zara, Nona, &c.....	Arbe, Pago, Grossa, Coronata, Mortero, Zuri.
SPALATRO.....	Spalatro, Trau, &c.....	Bua, Brazza, Lesina, Lissa, Solta, Torcola.
RAGUSA.....	Ragusa, Stagno, &c.....	Curzola, Meleda,* Lagosta, Giupana, Mezzo.
CATTARO.....	Cattaro, Perasto, &c.....	

*Zara*, the capital of the kingdom, is situated on a strait formed by the island Ugliano and the mainland. It is important for its industry, commerce, fortifications and harbor. It possesses a central seminary for the ecclesiastics of Dalmatia, a lyceum, a gymnasium, a college, a school of midwifery, and about 5,000 inhabitants. *Sabonico* is a small seaport with extensive fisheries, and is noted from several grand buildings and its ancient civilization.

*Spalatro* is the most populous and commercial town in Dalmatia, and has a good harbor. Population, 8,000. The circuit of the town corresponds with the walls of the palace built by the Emperor Dioclesian, when he took up his residence after his abdication, at Salona, the ruins of which are close by Spalatro. A museum has been formed in which to preserve the antiquities dug up from the ruins. The fort of Clyssa defends the passage of the mountains and forms the principal land defence of this town, which is the entrepôt of the trade between Bosnia and Dalmatia.

*Ragusa*, (Dubrownik,) lately the capital of a democratic republic, is a seaport town in the Adriatic. It has considerable trade, and a population of 6,000 inhabitants, who are chiefly employed in shipbuilding and soap works. In its neighborhood is the fine harbor of Gravosa, surrounded with villages and the villas of the rich merchants of Ragusa. *Cattaro*, with 3,000 inhabitants, has a fine natural harbor and is well fortified. It enjoys considerable maritime trade, and is noted in the history of the French Empire as the "Bocche de Cattaro."

Dalmatia formed, from the commencement of the 12th century down to 1419, a portion of the Kingdom of Hungary. It now passed under the sway of the Venetians. During the 16th and 17th centuries this country was the seat of constant warfare between the Turks and Venetians, until it

\* *Meleda* is by some antiquarians believed to be the *Melita* of St. Paul. It is noted for its precipices and funnels, from which sounds proceed that sometimes alarm the inhabitants

was finally conquered by the former, who held it till 1797, when it was ceded to Austria. In 1805 Austria gave up Dalmatia to the French, who incorporated it into the Kingdom of Italy. Napoleon made it a duchy, and conferred the title of Duke of Dalmatia on Marshal Soult. On the downfall of Napoleon it reverted to Austria.

## CRACOW.

This last remnant of the ancient Kingdom of Poland, as before stated, has at length been seized upon by Austria, but whether it has been annexed to Galicia or still remains a separate territory, is not well understood. The city of *Cracow* is situated on the left bank of the Vistula, in a beautiful valley. It has a number of fine buildings, but the streets are narrow, irregular and ill-paved. Its cathedral, regarded as the finest and most interesting church of Poland, contains the tombs of the kings and great statesmen of the kingdom, from Boleslaus the Frisian, and Casimir the Just, to Joseph Poniatowski and Thaddeus Kosciusko. The ancient royal castle was for some time occupied as barracks, and is now possessed in part by a benevolent society; and the bishop's palace is at the present the finest in the city. The university is one of the most ancient in Europe, and possesses a rich library and botanic garden. Population about 25,000. Cracow communicates with its suburb Podgorza, in Galicia, by a bridge across the Vistula.

As a republic, Cracow was governed by a senate of twelve members, with a president elected every two years, and a legislature or assembly of deputies chosen by the communes. The former exercised the executive power. The area of the territory of Cracow is 493 square miles, and its population about 120,000. The inhabitants have always been jealous of their liberties, and it was owing to their abetting sedition among their brethren of Galicia, that their *guaranteed* independence was seized upon in 1846.

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## THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA.

THIS kingdom, lying between 49° and 56° north latitude, and 6° and 23° east longitude, consists of several detached portions, separated at wide intervals by other states. No exact estimate can be formed of its length and breadth; but a line drawn between the eastern and western extremities, measures about 790 miles, and the greatest breadth measures 420 miles, in which limits is comprised an area of 107,855 square miles. The boundaries are:—the Baltic Sea, Mecklenburg and Hanover, on the north; Russia on the east; the Austrian Empire, the Saxon States, the Hessian States, Bavaria and France, on the south; and France, Belgium and Holland, on the west.

The German portion of Prussia having been already described, it is unnecessary to repeat what has been stated in respect to the general aspect of that division of the country. The western, or detached portion, extends along both sides of the Lower Rhine; the eastern portion comprises a portion of that vast plain which extends from the North Sea to the Ural Mountains. There are, however, considerable inequalities in the soil and surface. The greater part of the soil is sandy, generally level, and often covered with heaths; and there are many sandy plains, which, on account of the expense it

would entail to bring them into cultivation, must forever lie profitless to agriculture. East Prussia abounds with lakes and morasses, and nearly one-fourth of the whole surface of the country is still covered by forests. Only certain portions near the rivers and other peculiar situations, can be considered as fertile, or even tolerable soils. The most productive corn land is in the vicinity of Tilsit; and some other parts of East Prussia, and the greater part of Posen, are also productive. The whole central portion of West Prussia, along the Vistula, is an excellent corn country. Silesia, to the east of the Oder, forms a large, slightly undulating plain; but the western portion is more unequal, and rises, towards the south-west, into high mountains. It contains also several extensive meadows and marshes. In Brandenburg the land is low and sandy, frequently inundated, and a great many marshes and small lakes are formed in the neighborhood of the rivers. This province is well-wooded, and some districts are celebrated for the quantity and quality of their grain. Pomerania is mostly formed of lands gained from the sea, and of alluvial deposits; a great part is covered with forests and heaths, and it is only the banks of rivers and lakes that admit of profitable cultivation. In Saxony, Magdeburg, and Thuringia, the soil is favorable for all kinds of grain, and these provinces may be considered as the granaries of the kingdom. The western provinces are far less fertile than the eastern part of the kingdom. Westphalia has little productive soil, and the Rhenish districts are only tolerably fertile.

The Baltic is the only sea that washes the Prussian coast; and the only part of it that bears a specific name is the GULF OF DANZIG, at the mouth of the Vistula; but there are along its coast several collections of water that may be considered as gulfs, bays, or lakes. The largest of these are the Curische-haf; the Frische-haf; and the Stettiner-haf. The CURISCHE-HAF, on the coast of East Prussia, is 66 miles long, and varies in breadth, from 30 miles in its southern portion to one mile at its north entrance, through which it communicates with the sea. It is separated from the Baltic by a long narrow tongue of land, and its bed is so shallow and full of sand banks, that it is only navigable for small boats. It receives its name from the Cures, an ancient people, formerly inhabiting its banks, and, indeed, the people of the vicinity still call themselves by the same name. The FRISCHE-HAF extends along the south-east shore of the Gulf of Danzig, and is about 60 miles in length, and from 6 to 15 in breadth. It communicates with the sea through the "Gatt," a strait 3,000 feet wide, but in many places not more than 12 feet deep, and the inlet is still shallower. It receives the waters of the Pregel, and two branches of the Vistula. The STETTINER-HAF, divided into the *Gros-haf* and the *Kleine-haf*, is situated at the mouth of the Oder, and separated by the islands of Usedom and Wollin from the sea, with which it communicates by three channels or straits. This water is 28 miles in length, with a mean breadth of five miles. The water of all these is perfectly fresh. PUDZIG-BAY is formed by a long, narrow tongue of land, which projects about 20 miles into the middle of the Gulf of Danzig.

Rugen and Usedom are the only islands of any considerable size belonging to Prussia. RUGEN lies off the north-western coast of Pomerania, and measures 30 miles in length, and 20 in breadth; but its numerous creeks and bays give it a very irregular and singular form. It is separated from the mainland by a channel, in one place nearly a mile wide, and is partly surrounded with several smaller islands. Rugen is generally of a chalk formation, but in the cen-

tral districts this is covered with argil, sand and gravel, and in some parts with red loam of very fertile quality. The inhabitants are engaged chiefly in agriculture and cattle-rearing. *Bergen* is its largest village. *USEDOM*, at the mouth of the Oder, is more irregular in form even than *Rugen*, and is partly covered with hills of sand, and with forests, which contain wild boars, stags, and other animals. The soil is unfertile, and the people depend more on fishing than agriculture. A strait 800 yards wide separates it from *WOLLIN*, a somewhat smaller, but more fertile island, on which a large number of cattle find excellent pastures.

The rivers which run through Prussia, from the highlands of Central Europe to the North Sea and Baltic, form so many valuable outlets of commerce. The *Niemen*, the *Vistula*, and the *Oder*, the latter of which is wholly within Prussia, are the largest and most important. The *Elbe* and the *Rhine* also pass through Prussia, but debouch from other states. In many parts the rivers have been joined together by canals, so as to furnish a more complete means of transportation from place to place, and a more direct communication with the ocean. The number of lakes is said to exceed 1,000; but few are more than from 10 to 20 miles in length. These occur chiefly in East and West Prussia, and Brandenburg. Many, however, have been embanked, and the land reclaimed. They supply vast quantities of fish.

The climate is generally temperate and healthy, but many natural causes except localities form this statement. On the borders of the Baltic the winters are severely cold, and the weather changeable, raw and foggy. The interior is milder and less variable. *Silesia* suffers much from rainy autumns and snowy winters, and owing to the dense forests and elevation of the ground, the southern districts are exposed to long and severe winters. The *Westphalian* and *Rhenish* provinces partake of the general climate of that part of Germany in which they are situated. Varying but little from the peculiarities of Germany, indeed, western Prussia may be said to have the same vegetables and animals with other parts of that confederation.

The Germans form the preponderating race in the kingdom; but in *Silesia*, *Posen*, and the *Prussias*, the people are of Slavonic origin, and speak various dialects of the Slave tongue. In East Prussia there are about 50,000 Lithuanians, who retain their peculiar language; and there are some *Wendens* or *Vandals* in *Pomerania*, East Prussia, and Brandenburg, who also have a distinct language. The Jews are most numerous in *Posen*, and number altogether about 170,000. The *Pruczi*, from whom the kingdom derives its name, were an ancient people, of a mixed *Wendo-Gothic* extraction, who dwelt along the coasts of the Baltic, from *Niemen* to the *Vistula*; but this language has long been in disuse, and the people themselves are no longer distinguishable. Being heathen, they were invaded, reduced to subjection, and forcibly christianized by the *Teutonic Knights*, whose possessions became the nucleus of the Prussian monarchy. The total population of the kingdom may be stated at 14,500,000, of which, about one-sixth lives in cities and towns containing more than 5,000 inhabitants.

All creeds are equal in the eye of the law, though the *Evangelical* may be considered in some respects as the religion of the state. The *Protestants* are in a majority in East Prussia, Brandenburg, *Pomerania*, and *Saxony*; the *Catholics* in *Westphalia*, the *Rhenish* provinces and *Posen*; while *Popery* and *Protestantism* are nearly equally divided in *Silesia* and *West Prussia*.

Without taking into account the smaller sects and Jews, it may be said that three-fifths of the Prussians are Protestants, and two-fifths Roman Catholics. The Protestant clergy of each province are under a synod, composed of the superintendants who meet annually to deliberate on the affairs of the churches. They also superintend the schools, and take especial cognizance of the religious education given in them; and their decisions, after being approved of by the consistory of the province, are transmitted to the Minister of the Public Instruction. The Roman Catholics are under the spiritual supervision of two Archbishops, and are distributed into nine dioceses and 3,200 parishes. Gnesen is the metropolitan see of the eastern, and Cologne of the western province. None of these bishops can be installed without the approval of the king. Public pilgrimages out of the kingdom are entirely prohibited, and none of greater extent than one day's journey are allowed within it. The Mennonites are excused from military duty, but in lieu of it are obliged to contribute to the support of the military academy at Culm. Jews enjoy equal rights, and are liable to conscription in the same mode as Christians.

The system of education in Prussia is the most complete ever established. It is the model on which all other systems are, or ought to be framed; and, indeed, Prussia is now quoted as the standard in reference to the degree of education possessed by other states. The instruction of all classes is carefully provided for, and the law compels all parents to send their children to school. Every parish is bound to have an elementary school, and every town to have one burgh school, or more, according to its population. Above these are gymnasia, synonymous with the academies of New-York, and in these institutions classical learning and mathematics are pursued, preparatory to admission into the universities, of which there are seven, viz: those of Berlin, Breslau, Halle, Bonn, Königsberg, Münster, and Greifswald. Normal schools provide proper teachers for these several grades, and in some cases pecuniary assistance is given to poor scholars of good promise. The lower schools are generally supported by the towns and villages, or by school associations; and the gymnasia and the other similar establishments from the general funds of the state, or the province in which they are situated. The Normal schools are partly supported by the state, and partly by the departmental funds for schools. The universities are either endowed and have funds of their own, or their expenses are borne by the general fund of the nation. A Minister of Public Instruction superintends the whole. This minister is assisted by a numerous council, which is divided into three sections: one for church affairs; one for general education, and a third for medicine—all the members receiving salaries from the state. In each province there is a consistory formed on the same model, whose duty it is to superintend, directly, the gymnasia and higher burgh schools. The parish or minor town schools are under the charge of the magistrates and curates of the respective parishes, assisted by committees. There is, moreover, in the chief town of every circle an inspector, whose authority is confined within the circle, and who corresponds with the local inspectors and committees. In the regency of every department there is a special councillor for the primary schools, the "Schulrath," who forms the connecting link between the public instruction and the ordinary civil administration of the province, inspects the schools, quickens and keeps alive the zeal of the local inspectors, committees and teachers, and conducts the correspondence relative to schools in the name of the regency, with the local and superior inspectors, the provincial consistories, and the Minister of Public Instruction.

Besides the universities there are theological academies for the Catholics, Lutherans, and Moravians. There are also establishments for the study of medicine and the collateral sciences; the military profession, and other general objects. The blind, and deaf and dumb are munificently provided for. The national collections of natural history, philosophical and astronomical apparatus, and the public libraries, are placed on a very liberal footing, and are all accessible to any person who chooses to avail himself of their assistance.

Until very recently the government was an unlimited monarchy, vested in a king. In 1846, however, the king promulgated a species of a constitution, and the first constitutional Diet was inaugurated at Berlin, 11th April, 1847, but this was suddenly dissolved on the 26th June, its proceedings having infringed on the prerogatives the king was anxious to reserve to himself. The revolutionary struggle which commenced in Italy, swept over France, and agitated with its doctrines every state of Europe, compelled the king again to call together his parliament, but the same difficulties beset their deliberations, and it was dissolved a second time, not, however, without the deputies protesting against the arbitrary proceedings of his majesty, and other demonstrations of an independent spirit. At the present time the bayonet keeps peace; and the people, except in determination to repel at a suitable time the aggressions of the king, may be said to be under as absolute a monarchy as that which existed previous to the constitution. In this state of matters, however, it is difficult to form an opinion; but perhaps when the excitation of the public mind is allayed, the grant of the monarch may be again revived, and a parliament called to complete and organize a government on a popular basis.

The ancestors of the reigning family were a branch of the Hohenzollern family in Swabia; afterwards Margraves of Brandenburg, and Electors and Arch-chamberlains of the Holy Roman Empire in Germany; all of which dignities were bestowed upon them by the Emperor Sigismund, in the years 1415 and 1417. In 1594 the Duchy of Prussia was united to the Electorate by the marriage of the Elector John Sigismund, with the heiress of the last Duke of Prussia. Various accessions were subsequently made, and at length the Elector Frederick III. obtained from the emperor the royal dignity and title of King of Prussia. Frederick the Great, who ascended the throne in 1740, and died in 1786, acquired Silesia by conquest from Austria, and a part of Poland at the first dismemberment of that kingdom. A larger portion was acquired in 1795, and in 1815 the present limits of the kingdom were determined by the Congress of Vienna, and the king invested with a degree of power and political importance which he did not previously possess.

The public revenues are derived from various sources, viz: from crown lands and forests; from mines, salt-works, and the porcelain factory at Berlin; from the post-office; from land and personal taxes, licences, customs, excise, &c. The total annual receipts, on an average of ten years, are stated at \$50,704,500 Prussian; and total annual expenditures at \$51,123,500. The public debt amounts to some \$165,000,000 which pays an interest of \$6,929,800 annually. A sinking fund is established for its redemption.

The Prussian army consists of—1. the standing army; 2. the first call of the Landwehr, or reserve; 3. the second call of the Landwehr; and 4. the Landsturm, a militia or national guard. The effective strength of the standing army is 150,000 in time of peace, and its war complement is 337,000. The

Landwehr numbers 139,840. The ranks of the army are supplied by conscription and ballot, and with few exceptions, all between 18 and 26 are liable to be drawn for military service. The standing army is drawn only from those between 20 and 25, but volunteers may enter at 17, and choose the corps in which they will serve, and on condition of equipping themselves, are exempted from more than one year's service. The others do duty with the standing army for three years; for two years more they belong to the reserve, and then pass into the Landwehr. As, however, only 25,000 or 30,000 recruits are required each year, the rest of the men of the requisite age pass at once into the Landwehr, in which they continue until 32 years of age. Thus is formed the first call of the Landwehr, and in time of war forms part of the active army. The second call consists of those between 32 and 39, who have previously served. These would garrison the fortresses in case of war. The Landsturm comprises all men between 17 and 50, who are liable to be called out to suppress civil commotion, or in defence of the country. The army is divided into nine corps d'armes, one of guards, and eight of the line. Thus every Prussian must serve in the line three years; in the first call of the Landwehr two; in the second call of the Landwehr until 39, and thence to 50 in the Landsturm; and from the commencement of his manhood until his vigor forsake him he is liable to military service. Promotion to the highest rank is open to all, and soldiers maimed or severely wounded are supported by the state. To the military establishment also belong the institutions for the education of the children of soldiers, at Stralsund and Annaburg, and the military Orphan Hospital at Potsdam. The principal fortresses are—Kustrin and Spandau, in Brandenburg; Glatz, Glogau, Schweidnitz, Neisse, Sillerberg, and Kosel, in Silesia; Graudenz, Pillau, Thorn, Danzig, with Weischselmunde, in Prussia; Posen, Colberg, and Stettin, in Pomerania; Magdeburg, Wittenberg, Torgau, and Erfurt, in Saxony; Minden, in Westphalia; Wesen, Cologne, Juliers, Saar-louis, Coblenz, and Ehrenbreitstein, in the Rhenish provinces. The king also furnishes the garrison of Luxemburg in common with the King of Holland; and that of Mentz with the Emperor of Austria.

Prussia is not a naval power.

The productive industry of Prussia is generally agricultural. The cultivation of the soil employs three fourths of the people, and during the last century the face of the country has been changed from the most barren and unproductive in Europe into one of the most fertile, producing all the needed home consumption and a large surplus for exportation. The state of agriculture, however, is different in the several provinces, and in many sections farming operations are carried on in a slovenly and unscientific manner. The principal crops grown are wheat, rye, barley and oats, but the quantity of rye far exceeds all the others, and is the common food of the people. Peas, beans and buckwheat are also raised, and in Brandenburg a species of food is collected from the "*festuca fluitans*." The culture of potatoes is increasing yearly, and has become so great as to supply nearly the entire food to a very large proportion of the laboring classes. Besides food the soil also produces many articles for manufactures and commerce. Flax is certainly the most important of these; it is grown in every district and almost by every peasant. Silesia, however, is the great flax region, and yields two thirds of the whole produce. Tobacco, madder, woad, safflower and hops are cultivated on a small scale, and chicory, a substitute for coffee, is largely cultivated in many districts. Beets for sugar are raised in ex-

tensive plats, and have become an important branch of Prussian agriculture. Wine is made chiefly in the Rhenish provinces, and also in a less measure, in Posen, Silesia and Saxony. The culture of esculent vegetables has been carried to a great degree of perfection. Silk is not yet become an important product, but the climate is not unsuited for the worm or growth of the mulberry. The most productive branch of rural economy, next to corn growing, is that of breeding and fattening cattle, but neither the cattle nor sheep are of the best breeds. The stock of sheep number about 15,000,000 fleeces. Swine are very numerous, and form the chief animal diet of the peasantry. Of the lands of the kingdom 29,000,000 acres are ploughed, 300,000 in garden culture, 40,000 vineyards, 15,000,000 meadow and pasture, and 18,000,000 woods, forests and plantations. The remainder of the country is occupied by lakes, rivers, canals, marshes, roads, cities, towns and sterile tracts, the whole amounting to eleven or twelve millions of acres.

The mines of Prussia are not worked to that extent of which they are capable. Iron is found almost everywhere, and rock-salt and salt-springs abound. Coal is found in Westphalia, Saxony, Silesia and Brandenburg, but the inferior means of transportation possessed by the country retard their working. Gold exists in Silesia, but not in such quantities as to render its mining remunerative. Silver is also mined in Silesia and Saxony. The useful and precious stones are abundantly supplied. Copper, cobalt, calamine, arsenic, alum, vitriol, saltpetre are produced, but in quantities not sufficient even for home consumption. Amber is found in mines in Prussia proper, and is also thrown up by the sea upon the coasts, which are strictly watched, and the produce farmed by government. This material is wrought into a variety of articles, and largely exported by the Danes and Italians, but Turkey is the principal market, the Turks using it to a great extent for mouth-pieces for their pipes. More than 200 tons are produced annually, and afford to the government between 20,000 and 25,000 dollars revenue. The average annual quantity of the other metals produced is—Silver, 23,000 marcs; copper, 17,000 (English) tons; pig lead, 22,500 do.; litharge, 4,700 do.; black lead, 44,000 do.; zinc, 187,000 do.; ore of cobalt, 992 do.; ore of antimony, 4,600 do.; bituminous coal, 11,500,000 (Prussian) tons; anthracite coal, 2,700,000 do.; salt 260,000 (English) tons; alum, 31,000 do.; vitriol, 39,000 do., &c., amounting to a total value of about 15,000,000 rix dollars.

Until lately the manufacturing industry of Prussia was confined to domestic articles; but the introduction of railways and the erection of large factories have now carried the production beyond the demand for home consumption. The old practice of home-weaving is still, however, extensively pursued among the agricultural families. Weaving, however, is chiefly confined to four materials, viz: flax, cotton, wool and silk. But besides what is spun at home Prussia imports largely from Great Britain. Wool is principally supplied from their own flocks, and generally only the coarse kinds are consumed at home, while the fine descriptions are exported via Hamburg to England and other countries. Linen is the largest manufacture—much larger than that of woollens, but the latter is being rapidly increased. Silk is as yet only a minor manufacture. Knitting by the hand, which is practised by the laboring population as an occasional employment, and among the wealthier classes as a recreation, continues to supply a great part of the hosiery required, and at so cheap a rate that no machinery can compete with



it. Prussia, however, though at the present time only a second rate manufacturing nation, has talent, material, cheap labor, and sufficient power and means of transportation to raise it, under a wise administration, into the first ranks, and give to it a position with which few nations will be able to compete.

Berlin is the centre of the iron manufactures, and has become celebrated for ornamental works in that material. Paper is also largely manufactured, and is furnished in sufficient quantities for home consumption. Leather is made to the full extent of the demand, and copper and brass wares for all domestic purposes. Tobacco, snuff, sugar, soap, candles, cabinetware, earthenware, porcelain, tin goods, and almost every article of common use, are manufactured within the kingdom. The establishments for brewing and distilling are very numerous. In the large cities the type-founders, printers, engravers, musical, optical and mathematical instrument makers, gold and silver smiths, jewellers, watch-makers and other artificers, are as numerous and as skilful as in any of the other continental states.

Foreign commerce is not so extensive as might be inferred from the facilities of the country, owing no doubt to the restrictions with which it has hitherto been loaded. Prussia possesses no sea-ports but on the Baltic, and as none even of these are calculated to receive large ships, there is very little trade carried on by Prussia beyond the limits of Europe. The amount of trade with the United States is exhibited in the statistical tables appended to that country, (Vol. I.) The greater part of the exports is conveyed in foreign bottoms, of which British ships exceed those of all other nations together. The principal ports are Danzig, Königsberg, Elbing, Memel, Stralsund, Colberg, Rugenwald, Stolpe, Barth, Swinemund and Wolgast.

The commerce by land and by internal navigation is principally with Austria and Russia. From Austria the Prussians receive salt and wine and send linen yarn in exchange. From Russia they import hemp, corn, hides, tallow and other raw produce, and send in return both linen and woollen cloths. The Rhenish provinces carry on an extensive trade with Belgium, Holland and the neighboring German states. The principal articles of general export are—grain, linen and thread, cloth, zinc, iron work, copper and brass work, porcelain, timber, cabinet work, iron-mongery, needles, arms, Prussian blue, tobacco, salt-meat, and musical and mathematical instruments. The most important imports are—gold, mercury, tin, sugar, coffee, tea, spices, and other colonial produce; French and Hungarian wines, cotton, silk and leaf tobacco. The principal trading towns are—Berlin, which is the centre of the commerce of the kingdom, and the seat of the great national bank; Elberfeld, the seat of the Rhenish West India Company and the principal place of foreign trade; Breslau, the entrepôt of the trade of Silesia, and Cologne, of that of the Rhine; Frankfort-on-the-Oder, Naumberg, Erfurt, Nordhausen, Aix-la-Chapelle, Coblenz, St. Goar, Remscheid, Iserlohn, Soest, Bielefeld, Neuwied, Wesel, Duisburg, Hirschberg, Lissa, Traustadt, Posen and Thorn.

The roads throughout Prussia, as in the rest of Germany, were formerly very little calculated for carriage-travelling; but, of late years, excellent roads have been built between the important towns, though in the more remote districts they still remain little better than tracks. Many of the rivers have been connected by canals; and railroads now extend through the chief commercial cities, and unite the western portion of the kingdom with the systems of Belgium, France, &c. The facilities proposed by lines

now building, will, no doubt, lead to a vast extension of the commercial relations of Prussia with the world at large.

For administrative purposes the kingdom is divided into eight provinces, which are again divided into 25 "regierungsbezirke," or governments, subdivided into 328 circles. The names, extent, and population of the provinces are exhibited in the following table :

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Governments.</i>	<i>Area in Sq. Miles.</i>	<i>Population.</i>
BRANDENBURG.....	Potsdam with Berlin, and Frankfort.....	15,533.....	855,072
POMERANIA.....	Stettin, Köslin, and Stralsund.....	12,207.....	1,007,195
SACHSEN.....	Magdeburg, Merseberg, and Erfurt.....	15,701.....	2,718,851
SCHLESSEN.....	Breslau, Oppeln, and Liegnitz.....	7,789.....	1,582,620
POSEN.....	Posen and Bromberg.....	11,401.....	1,190,970
PRUSSIA.....	Königsberg, Gumbinnen, Danzig, and Marienwerder.....	25,033.....	2,172,550
WESTPHALIA.....	Munster, Minden, and Arnsberg.....	7,819.....	1,341,627
CLEVES-BERG, or the } Rhenish Provinces. }	Köln or Cologne, Dusseldorf, Coblenz, Trier } or Treves, Aachen or Aix-la-Chapelle.... }	10,372.....	2,502,645
Total.....		107,855	14,371,530

BERLIN, the capital of the kingdom, and official residence of the government, is situated on the banks of the Spree, in the midst of a sandy plain. The nucleus or centre of the city, is formed by the old town, which is divided into three portions by two branches of the river, and surrounded by a ditch, which alone marks the old ramparts. Extensive suburbs occupy three sides of the town. On the west side a new town has been built, on a regular plan, with long, straight, and spacious streets, interspersed with "places" of various forms. The whole city and suburbs are now nearly enclosed by a high wall, in which there are 15 gates. Few of the houses exceed three stories, and are built with just enough of uniformity to show variety of taste amidst general sameness. The principal street, named "Unter-den-Linden," extends in a straight line, east and west, from the Schloss-brücke (palace-bridge) to the Brandenburg gate, a distance of more than a mile, with a width of nearly 100 yards, divided into five roads by four rows of trees, and lined on each side by magnificent houses and public buildings. The rest of the streets are plain, ill-paved, and with little ornament. The old city, and the Unter-den-Linden, are the business parts of the town, all the remainder being tame and lifeless. The city, in short, has been extended more than was demanded by its population ; and, as a consequence, it has generally the appearance of depopulation. The schloss, or palace, stands in the centre of an island formed by the Spree ; but, as a building, is more remarkable for its extent than splendor. The museums, libraries, university, the arsenal, churches, and several of the gates, are good buildings, but there is something wanting to attract the eye. All is tame, and perhaps nothing is worth the traveller's notice except the Brandenburg-gate, which consists of a much-admired pile of Grecian columns and lodges, built in imitation of the Propylea of the Athenian Acropolis, and surmounted by a bronze figure of Victory on a quadriga. The porcelain factory, however, attracts great attention ; and, certainly, it is a most magnificent establishment, and worthy of its royal owner. It belongs to the king, who is, perhaps, the only European potentate who engages in manufactures. Berlin contains a great number of scientific and literary establishments. The University ranks among the first in Europe. Besides this, almost every department of life has its special school, in which its sci-

ence is taught. It has also a fine botanic garden, an observatory, and several fine libraries, the principal of which is the Royal Library, one of the richest and most extensive collections in Europe. The city and suburbs contain, collectively, about 249,000 inhabitants.

POTSDAM, 18 miles south-west of Berlin, is a large and fine, but desolate town, on the banks of the Havel, where the water is dammed up, and forms a spacious artificial lake. It seems to be one huge barrack, and scarcely a living being is seen without the Prussian uniform. Yet Potsdam is an interesting town, for it contains the tomb of Frederick the Great, whose spirit seems diffused over, within and around everything. The tomb is a plain sarcophagus, in the garrison church, overshadowed with the flags and eagles taken from the French in the last war. In the environs is the Palace of Sans Souci, the New Palace, and the Marble Palace. In the middle of the lake is the Pfaueninsel, (Peacock Island,) the favorite summer retreat of the late king, said to be at that season a most lovely spot; and around it are artificial hills and valleys, adorned with groves and fine buildings, forming, altogether, a strange and delightful contrast to the sandy plain that surrounds it. Population, 24,000.

STETTIN, on the Oder, the capital of Pomerania, is a fine fortified town, with a number of useful institutions. It is a busy, commercial place, and one of the principal seaports. DAM, on the east side of the river, is strongly fortified, in connection with Stettin. Population, 30,000.—SWINEMUNDE, on the Isle of Usedom, is regarded as the harbor of Stettin. Population, 3,600. STRALSUND is a busy commercial town, of 15,000 inhabitants; and WOLGAST, with 4,000 inhabitants, has a good port, and some commerce. MAGDEBURG, on the left bank of the Elbe, is the citadel of Prussia, and one of the strongest fortresses in Europe. HALLE is a busy, old-fashioned city, and is particularly noted for the activity of its printing-presses. It is the seat of one of the most famous of European universities, and has a multiplicity of scientific and literary establishments. BRESLAU has an extensive commerce, and contains a university and other institutions. It is one of the strongest of the Prussian fortresses. Population, 86,000.

POSEN, formerly the capital of Great Poland, is a large and flourishing commercial city, upon the Wartha, 160 miles east of Berlin. Population, 32,000. GNESEN, 30 miles east of Posen, is considered to be the oldest town in Poland. Population, 5,600. LISSA, with 8,600 inhabitants; RAWITSCH, with 8,000, and some other towns, are occupied in manufactures, but otherwise are unimportant.

KONIGSBERG, the capital of Prussia proper, lies on the Pregel, not far from its mouth, in the Frische-haf. The town is large, and regularly-built, but old-fashioned. It is the seat of a university, and has a famous observatory, and numerous scientific establishments. It carries on a considerable trade through PILLAU, which may be considered as its port. Population, 64,000.

DANZIG, (Dantzick *Eng.*, Dantsick *Fr.*, Gdansk *Pol.*) stands in a fine situation, on the left bank of the most westerly branch of the Vistula, near the sea. It is an ancient city, and, until 1795, was a free town, governed by its own laws and magistrates, under the protection and sovereignty of Poland. It enjoys considerable trade in exporting the raw produce of Poland and Eastern Prussia. It is surrounded by strong fortifications,  $2\frac{1}{4}$  miles in circuit, and has 4 gates, 19 bastions, and forts and redoubts on the Hail-Stolpen and Bishop's Mounts adjoining. It has endured several

memorable sieges. Population, 63,000. NEUFAHRWASSER is the port of Danzig. THORN, on the Vistula, is noted as the birth-place of Copernicus.

MUNSTER, the chief city of Westphalia, was formerly the capital of an independent bishopric, and is a well-built, busy and commercial town on the Aa, not far from the Ems. It was here that the peace of Westphalia was signed, in 1648. Population, 18,000. MINDEN, on the Weser, is a fortified commercial town, with 8,000 inhabitants. In the immediate neighborhood is the "Westphalische-Pforte," a pass formed by the near approach of the mountains Jakobsberg and Wittikinsberg, at the foot of the latter of which a stone obelisk has been erected to the memory of Wittikin, the chief or king of the Saxons, who was subdued by Charlemagne.

KOLN, or COLOGNE, (the Colonia Agrippina of the Romans,) is a large and very ancient city, on the left bank of the Rhine. It is about seven miles in circuit, surrounded with strong ramparts, and is connected by a bridge of boats with Deutz, which is also strongly-fortified, and forms part of the system of the fortifications of the city. The streets are narrow and crooked, and most of the houses have an antiquated air about them. "Altogether," says Mr. Chambers, "the town is a collection of dirty streets, lanes, and ill-arranged open places, jumbled together in a confused mass." Its population, numbering 63,000, are devout Catholics, and are addicted to the grossest superstitions and idolatry. The city contains many churches, noted for their beauty and antiquity. The cathedral is the most magnificent specimen of Gothic architecture of Germany. It contains a relic, which is highly-valued, in *the skulls of the three Magi, or Wise Men, who visited our infant Saviour at Bethlehem!* They are decorated with gilt jewelled crowns, and their names are affixed in ruby characters. The Church of St. Ursula is lined with the bones of 11,000 British virgins, who fled with that saint, and landing near the mouth of the Rhine, found their way to Cologne, where they preferred death to the dishonor which awaited them from the Pagan inhabitants. These and the other churches abound with similar emblems of superstition, but many contain the imperishable master-pieces of the old painters, which form the great attraction to all strangers. Cologne is noted for a spirituous liquor named from it, of which millions of flasks are annually exported. Cologne is a free port, and is calculated, from its situation, to be a great commercial emporium, if its inhabitants could only be induced to engage in commercial pursuits. It is connected with Belgium and the west of Europe by railway. BONN, 13 miles above Cologne, is the seat of a celebrated university. DUSSELDORF, on the right bank of the Rhine, below Cologne, is a fine town, delightfully situated, and has a large number of useful institutions. It is the shipping-port of a number of flourishing towns in its vicinity. Population, 22,000. WESEL is a free port, also on the Rhine. COBLENZ, at the confluence of the Moselle with the Rhine, is built on a triangular spot of land formed by the two rivers. The system of fortifications around the city is intended to form an entrenched camp, capable of containing 100,000 men. Coblenz, as a town, has a highly agreeable appearance: the spacious places and streets, the handsome buildings which adorn them, the numerous churches, the shops, and the quays, make a pleasing impression on the traveller. At Rhense, or Rhees, a few miles south of Coblenz, is the spot still marked by stones, where formerly stood the König's-Stuhl, (King's-Seat,) where the Electors of the Rhine used to meet to deliberate upon the affairs of the empire, and where several of the

emperors have been chosen, and some dethroned—as was Wenceslaus in 1400.

TREVES, or Trier, is a small town upon the Moselle. The city is said to be the oldest in Germany, and was formerly the see of an archbishop, who was one of the electors of the empire. It is finely situated between two mountains covered with vineyards, and contains many fine churches and palaces, a large collection of antiquities, and a fine bridge over the Moselle. Population, 14,600.

AACHEN, or Aix-la-Chapelle, an ancient imperial city, is situated in a valley nearly surrounded by hills, and has long been noted and much resorted to for its mineral waters. It consists of several respectable, with many dirty and confined streets; and contains several churches, which, from their antiquity and various ornaments, deserve to be visited; but the two most interesting buildings are the town house and cathedral, the latter of which, or at least a part of it, was built by Charlemagne, and contains his tomb; but his earthly particles have disappeared. He was not buried, but placed in a white marble chair, with his imperial robes and crown, in the year 814. After a lapse of two centuries the vault which contained these precious relics was opened by the Emperor Otho III., who carried off the ensigns of royalty to be used at the coronation of future emperors. It was opened in 1165, a second time, by Barbarossa, who transferred the body to a splendid sarcophagus, and placed the chair in the church, where it is still preserved. The sarcophagus is now empty, but how or when it became so, is not known; though a skull and an arm bone, said to be those of Charlemagne, are still to be found in the reliquary of the church. From the time of the Emperor Louis I. to the year 1588, thirty-six kings of Germany\* and ten queens were crowned at Aachen; and 17 diets and 10 synods have been held thereat. The waters of Aachen are sulphureous, warm and nauseous. This is the only Prussian town in which gambling is licensed, and one of its "hells," named the "New Redoubt," ranks as the most splendid and profligate of all the establishments of the kind on the continent. The city has of late years been much embellished, and besides several splendid hotels and gambling-houses, contains a superb bath-house, a new theatre and several fine fountains. It is also the seat of flourishing manufactures of various kinds. Its needles are much celebrated. Its other articles of produce are cloth, linen, cotton goods, clocks and watches, goldsmith work and carriages.

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## THE KINGDOM OF DENMARK.

The dominions of Denmark consist of Denmark proper, or Jutland, with several adjacent islands; and Schleswick and Holstein in Germany. It lies between  $53^{\circ} 20'$  and  $57^{\circ} 44'$  N. latitude, and  $8^{\circ}$  and  $15^{\circ} 28'$  E. longitude. Length, 298 miles; breadth, 180 miles; area, 21,856 square miles. It is bounded by the Skager-rack and Cattegat on the north; the Elbe and the territories of Hamburg, Lubeck, Hanover and Mecklenburg on the south;

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\* Originally the Emperor was not Emperor of Germany, though usually styled so. He was King of Germany and Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire; in which character it was that Charlemagne and others were crowned at Rome by the Pope. The title ran thus: "Electus Romanorum Imperator semper augustus, ac Germaniæ Rex," &c.

the Baltic and the Sound on the east, and by the German Ocean on the west.

Denmark is a portion of the great European plain, and may be characterised as almost uniformly level, with partial inequalities, particularly in Holstein and Schleswick, where the elevation sometimes reaches 1,000 feet. The islands of Funen and Zealand have also considerable inequalities. The continental portion consists of a narrow peninsula, projected from Germany and terminating in the Skaw. The islands are situated between this and the neighboring kingdom of Sweden, and are separated from each other by narrow straits which form the communication between the German Ocean and the Baltic Sea. The soil is generally a composition of sand and clay; but in some parts there are extensive peat formations. The western coast is one continued level marshland, protected from the sea by dykes. Lauenburg is an undulating plain with few hills. The vegetation of the islands is surprisingly developed, and refreshes the eye with its bright verdure. The most beautiful beech woods, with fertile fields and meadows, vary the scene, while numerous small lakes and prospects of the sea, which burst on the sight, communicate life and variety to the whole. Holstein has a highly pleasing character, and consists of gentle knolls interspersed with small sheets of water. In general, however, there is little wood; but whenever it occurs, from its consisting principally of trees with glossy and luxuriant foliage, it tells well in the landscape.

The straits which divide the islands are of difficult navigation, and the shallows, rapids and short and precipitous waves concur to render the whole coast very dangerous. The Skager-rack and Cattegat separate Jütland from Norway and Sweden; the Little Belt, at one place very narrow, separates Funen from the continent; the Great Belt separates Funen and Langeland from Zealand and Laaland, and the Sound separates Zealand from Sweden. The Sound is almost the only one of these straits that is frequented by foreign ships, and every ship that passes pays toll to the king of Denmark. It is about 4,600 yards wide, and is in some parts interrupted by sand-banks. The number of ships passing through it varies from 13,000 to 16,000 annually. The Liimfiord extends from the Cattegat nearly across the whole breadth of north Jutland, at first in a narrow stream, but afterwards expanding into a broad basin, divided by peninsulas and islands. It is separated from the German Ocean only by a narrow belt of land, which was broken through by the waves in 1825; and the canal of Agger has since been formed at the breach, for the passage of vessels through the fiord. The most remarkable cape is the Skaw or Skagens-odde, the extreme northern point of the peninsula.

The islands belonging to Denmark, with the exception of Zealand, Funen, Laaland, &c., in the Baltic, are small. A large number, consisting chiefly of sand, line the western coast, one of which, Heligoland, belongs to Great Britain. The Faroe Islands, in the Atlantic, north of the Shetlands, belong to Denmark, and form one of the provinces of the kingdom. They are 22 in number, of which 17 are inhabited. Most of them may be considered as mountain ridges rising above the surface. They have a fertile soil and a mild but moist climate, and are subject to fogs and storms, though little so to rain. Extremes of heat or cold are rarely felt. None of the grains are cultivated with much success, except perhaps big, a hardy species of barley, and even that does not always ripen. Turnips and potatoes thrive well. Winter is not severe, but of long duration, clouding more than one-half of

the year in darkness, illumed only by the fitful gleams of the *Aurora Borealis*, which is here truly brilliant. In the peat bogs are found the remains of beech trees, though none now exist in the islands.

The rivers of Denmark are all small, but have been much improved by the people. The Eider rises from a pond near Bordesholm in Holstein, runs through Lake Western, separates Schleswick from Holstein, and enters the North Sea, below Tonnigen. The Delvenau, Alster, Bille and Stor, in Holstein, run into the Elbe. The Trave rises in Holstein, receives the Stecknitz from Lauenburg, and flows past Lubeck into the Baltic. The Guden in North Jutland runs into the Cattegat. The kingdom contains more than 400 lakes, but they are mostly very small.

The climate is essentially insular, and consequently much milder than its latitude would indicate. The atmosphere is very damp, and fogs frequently envelope the surface, and to this cause Denmark mainly owes its luxuriant vegetation. Summer, however, is short, and cold weather returns with October, and incessant snows or rains prevail until May or June. The coasts are seldom covered with ice, or the Sound rendered unnavigable in the most severe seasons. The climate, generally speaking, is not insalubrious.

As before remarked, few forests exist in Denmark, which is said to be owing to the violence of the storms which prevent their growth. Of the dark forests which once covered the land, there now remains only long belts along its eastern shores. In Holstein and Lauenburg, however, wood lands are more extensive. Funen and the other islands are dotted with small forests, chiefly consisting of birch, oak and ash, but pines are rare. Berry-bearing shrubs and brambles border the highways and skirt the woods. A plant which the Danes call manna, (*festuca fluitans*), and the grain of which yields very tolerable food, grows spontaneously in several of the islands, especially in Laaland. There are also other indigenous plants, which are found useful in medicine and the arts.

Few of the larger wild animals, since the extinction of the forests, have existed in Denmark. The wolf has disappeared, and the wild boar and deer have become very scarce; but the fox, martin, polecat, and other small quadrupeds, are still abundant. On the coasts wild geese and ducks, partridges, snipes and thrushes frequent the marshes; and, in the Liimfiord and among the islands of the Sound, the swan flies at large. The eider-duck nestles in the cliffs of the rocks, but the eagle and other large birds of prey are seldom seen. Domestic animals form the chief wealth of Denmark. The horse, the ox and the sheep have been much improved in breed, and are much sought after for exportation. Poultry is very profitable to the farmers. Swine are sent in considerable numbers into Holstein, and there fattened and salted for exportation. Denmark has long supplied the continent with that race of dogs called "Danish," famed for their strength and fidelity, and also with the small black muzzled dog which the French call "Carlin." The seas abound in fish, and few families on the sea-board neglect to supply themselves with an ample store for food, and a large surplus is exported. Plaise, oysters, lobsters, herrings, salmon, &c., are very abundant in different localities.

The people of Denmark are of German origin, but of four distinct families. The "Danes" form the great mass of the people in Jutland, the islands and in Schleswick. The "Germans" inhabit Holstein and Lauenburg, and form perhaps one fourth in Schleswick. The "Frison" occupy the islands

along the west coast, and the "Angles" live between the Bight of Flensburg and the Schley on the Baltic. The Danes are of middle stature and fair complexion, but are little acquainted with the improvements of the more polished part of Europe, and the peasantry have but recently been emancipated from feudal servitude. On the other hand, the Danes have long enjoyed the advantages of the reformation, and the establishment of schools.

The language of Denmark is a branch of the Teutonic, and is styled the Scandinavian Gothic. The structure and roots, however, are very different from the High Dutch, but the affinity is so marked as to leave no doubt of their common origin. It is one of the softest languages now spoken in Europe, the consonants being so liquified in pronunciation as not to be easily perceptible.

The population of Denmark (including the Farøe Islands,) amounts to upwards of 2,000,000, and is distributed in the following proportions: in Denmark proper, 1,223,807; in the German provinces, 813,788; and in Farøe, 7,000.

Lutherism is the established religion of the state, and is professed by almost the whole of the people. There are also a few Catholics, Hutterites, Calvinists and Mennonites; and the Jews, though comparatively few, are nevertheless more numerous than any of the last mentioned sects separately. All religions, however, enjoy political and civil equality. There are nine Lutheran bishops all nominated by the king, but they have no political character. The clergy amount to 1,580, of which 1,063 are in Jutland and the islands, and 517 in Schleswick and Holstein. They are paid partly by a share of the tithes and partly by fees and glebe lands.

Education in Denmark has reached a high degree of perfection. All the institutions (except the university of Kiel) are under the management of a royal college or commission, which appoints the professors and teachers. The university of Copenhagen has four faculties—a theological, a judicial, a medical and a philosophical; and to the last mentioned belong Greek and Roman literature, and other departments of a general education. The number of grammar and parish schools amounts to upwards of 3,000, and there are besides 2,000 schools in which the systems of Bell and Lancaster have been adopted. The latter are intended for elementary education and the instruction of the common people. Teaching, however, is free, and any person may establish himself in competition with the government schools. In "Bremner's Incursions," that author seems to be much prejudiced against the results of Danish education, and states that the people are in the greatest of ignorance, and that the system pursued fails to call genius from obscurity or foster it when discovered. There may be truth in his remarks, but perhaps a more favorable opinion has been formed by others; to say the least, the present writer has never known a Dane who could not read and write, and who, moreover, exhibited a general proficiency in the common branches of a liberal education. The university of Kiel, in Holstein, is less richly endowed and less flourishing than that of Copenhagen.

The government was formerly an absolute monarchy. In 1834, Frederick VI. voluntarily relinquished a large share of the royal power, by granting to his people a free constitution. Each of the five districts into which the kingdom is divided has a distinct parliament, without whose consent no law affecting person or property can be promulgated, and new taxes and levies must be sanctioned by them. They can likewise suggest laws for the king's approval. The four provincial states are:—1. That of the islands, which



has 70 representatives; 2. Jutland, 51; 3. Schleswick, 44; and 4. Holstein, 48. Lauenburg is still governed by its old constitution. The public business is managed by a Privy Council, and subordinate to this council are the Chanceries of Denmark, Schleswick and Holstein, the office of Foreign Affairs, the Treasury, the Chamber of Commerce, the Admiralty, the War Office, and the Board of Trade. None but natural born subjects are eligible to official stations. With respect to the laws there is no uniform code for the whole kingdom; Schleswick and Holstein retain their old usages and constitutions, and Denmark is governed by the code of Christian V., who reigned from 1670 to 1679. There are two orders of nobility, viz.: counts, or earls and barons, but there is also, as in other feudal countries, an untitled nobility, who rank as high in the estimation of the people as those ennobled by the king. In Holstein and Lauenburg, which form a portion of the Germanic Confederation, the nobility enjoys great privileges. The Ditmarshians, in Holstein, and the citizens of Altona, have likewise great liberties and privileges, and in particular are exempt from the system of excise and customs, to which all the rest of the kingdom is subjected. The annual revenue of the kingdom averages about \$7,000,000. The public debt amounts to £13,969,035 sterling, and the annual interest on this sum to £525,744, or about one-third of the revenue. All surplusses are paid into the sinking fund for the redemption of the state debt.

The permanent army consists of 12,000 foot, and 3,700 horse troops; but at the annual drill, when all the men absent on furlough attend, it amounts to 24,867 foot, and 18,067 horse, besides those employed in the hospitals, &c. The whole, including these, amounts to 72,000. Denmark is divided into three military districts. The naval force, since its capture by the British, has ceased to be efficient. It now consists of 7 ships of the line, 7 frigates, 5 sloops, 6 brigs, 3 schooners, 3 cutters, 58 gun-boats, 6 gun-rafts, and 3 bomb vessels, in all carrying 1,076 guns, and requiring about 3,000 men to man them. This navy may be sufficient to protect the commerce of the country, and enforce its laws on the sea. The merchant navy is in a very flourishing condition.

Productive industry in Denmark is two centuries behind that of those nations to whom, in numbers and natural advantages of soil, climate and situation, the Danes may be fairly compared, viz.: the Scots, the Dutch, and the Belgians. Occupying the richest soil and the most advantageous position in the north of Europe, the people are very poor. Agriculture is especially backward, and the implements of husbandry quite primitive. The small farm system here prevails, a system decidedly prejudicial to extensive improvement. Oats, barley, and rye, are the principal crops. Wheat is little cultivated, but of late the potatoe has been very extensively planted. The great object of the farmer is grazing, and both horses and beeves are largely exported. In Holstein the farmers are more scientific, and excel their brethren of the north in the art of producing. Their fields are better cultivated, but here as elsewhere, the agriculturist considers his cattle as his chief wealth. In Lauenburg and the islands, the agricultural produce is mainly confined to the inferior kinds of grain. But throughout all Denmark the long and severe winters are a continued and irremediable hindrance to agricultural advancement.

The Danes are not a manufacturing people. Earthenware is made in several places, and in Holstein there are considerable works in copper and brass, but there are only four iron foundries in the kingdom. Domestic

manufactures, carried on in families, embrace almost all articles of general use; and where other factories exist, they are on that small scale which bars every effort at improvement.

Few countries are more favorably situated for commerce, and the Danes have not been unmindful of their natural advantages. This in fact is the only branch that can be said to flourish. The principal exports consist of corn, butter, meal, cheese, horses and beeves, tallow, hides, lard, salt-meat, wool, and corn spirits, which are largely distilled at Copenhagen. The imports consist of wine, salt, timber, tar, pit-coal, fruits, raw sugar, coffee, &c., and a general assortment of manufactured articles. The principal trading towns are Copenhagen, Altona, Elsinore, Flensburg, Aarhuns, Kiel, Rendsborg, Tonningen, and Gluckstadt.

The roads of Zealand and the other islands are generally very good, but in Jutland, Schleswick, Holstein, and Lauenburg, they are in a most neglected state. This must result from absolute indifference on the part of the people, for no country is better adapted for road making. There have, however, already been built several rail roads, and it is probable that the extension of this means of communication will be rapidly undertaken. Perhaps this apathy in respect to roads may be partially owing to the facilities offered by numerous arms of the sea, which penetrate the country far inland. To avoid the difficult navigation round the northern part of Jutland, these have been extended artificially from sea to sea. The Canal of Kiel extends from the town of Kiel, on the Baltic, to the Eider, which has been rendered navigable to the North Sea. This canal is 23 miles long, and in connection with the river, forms a convenient navigation of 105 miles; 3,000 or 4,000 vessels pass through it every year. The Canal of Stecknitz connects the Elbe with the Baltic by means of the Delvenau, an affluent of the Elbe, and the Stecknitz, an affluent of the Trave. The Canal of Nestved, in Zealand, connects the Lake Bavelse with the Baltic Sea. All these canals have been highly advantageous to the commerce, as well as the revenues of the kingdom.

For administrative purposes Denmark is divided into four great provinces, which, with their area, population, &c. are exhibited in the annexed table:

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Area in Sq. Miles.</i>	<i>Population</i>
KINGDOM OF DENMARK,...	{ consisting of North Jutland, and the Islands of Sjælland (Zealand,) Funen, Laaland, &c., with Færoe..... }	{ 14,493..... 1,223,807
DUCHY OF SCHLESWICK...	{ consisting of South Jutland and the islands of Æro, Als, and Femern, in the Baltic..... }	{ 3,451..... 338,192
“ OF HOLSTEIN....	{ ..... }	{ 3,508..... 435,596
“ OF LAUENBURG...	{ .....in Germany..... }	{ 404..... 35,680
		<hr/> 21,856..... 2,033,275

Each of these is subdivided into bailiwicks, and smaller districts.

COPENHAGEN, (Kjøbenhavn, i. e. Merchants' Harbor,) the capital of the kingdom, is situated on the east coast of Zealand, where the small Isle of Amack forms a superb harbor. It is one of the finest cities in Europe, being laid out in regular, though narrow streets, and adorned with many noble buildings; such as the royal palaces, churches, hospitals, the town-house, exchange, mansions of the nobility, &c. It contains also a university one of the most flourishing and best endowed in the world. The Royal Library has a magnificent collection of 400,000 books, and the University

**Library, 112,000.** It has also a royal bank, and manufactures of linens, woollens, and leather; and also extensive dock-yards. About 500 vessels, manned by six or seven thousand seamen, belong to the port; but the trade of the city is confined to the supplying of its own inhabitants with articles of consumption. Copenhagen is strongly-fortified, and is defended by a citadel considered to be impregnable, and several forts, one of which, the *Trekroner*, is built in the sea, upon a sand-bank, about a mile from the city. The population exceeds 120,000. The immediate environs of the city are of great beauty.

**ROSKILD**, the ancient capital, 20 miles west by south of Copenhagen, is a small town, with only 1,200 inhabitants, but contains a Gothic cathedral, a rich library, and the tombs of the royal family. **HELSINGOR**, (*Elsinore*), on the west of the sound, with 7,000 inhabitants, has an artificial harbor, and near it is the strong castle of *Kroneborg*, intended to command the passage. **ALTONA**, in Holstein, on the north bank of the Elbe, close to Hamburg, is a large town, possessing great privileges, a mint, and considerable trade. Population, 27,000. **KIEL**, also in Holstein, is an important town, with 13,000 inhabitants. It has a large trade, especially in grain. The university is a fine foundation, and has a library of over 100,000 volumes. **GLUCKSTADT**, the capital of Holstein, is a free port. **RATZEBURG**, the capital of Lauenburg, is a small town, with 2,000 inhabitants; and **LAUENBURG** has the right of levying toll on vessels passing up and down the Elbe. **SCHLESWICK**, the capital of South Jutland, situated at the extremity of a long, narrow inlet, named the *Sil*, is a busy trading town, with 11,000 inhabitants. Near it is the magnificent castle of *Got-torp*, the residence of the governor of Holstein and Schleswick. **RENSBURG**, on the Baltic, and **TÖNNINGEN**, at the mouth of the Eider, are two important seaports; the former with 14,000 inhabitants, and the latter with 2,500. The other towns are of less importance, and need no special notice. Few have a larger population than 8,000.

The foreign possessions of Denmark are:—*Iceland*, in the Arctic Ocean; *Greenland*, in North America; the islands of *Santa Cruz*, *St. Thomas*, and *St. John*, in the West Indies; *Christianborg*, *Tema*, *Nimbo*, *Friedensborg*, *Adda*, *København*, and *Binzenstein*, on the coast of Guinea; and *Serampore* and *Tranquebar*, in India. These are severally noticed under their appropriate geographical positions.

The early history of Denmark is obscure, but heroic. Their sea-kings were the terror of the south, and their princes the conquerors of even Britain herself, and an illustrious line of Danish kings held her sceptre. The Danes were also remarkable for their early civilization, and their devotion to commerce, perhaps before the first British ship was built. In 1385, *Margaret*, daughter of *Waldemar*, king of Denmark, and wife of *Haquin*, king of Norway, ascended the throne of these kingdoms, and in 1389 she was chosen by the Swedes as their sovereign, the crowns being united in 1397 by the treaty of *Calmar*. After the death of this renowned princess, in 1412, the Swedes began to evince their discontent with the union, and after a lengthened struggle, finally emancipated themselves from the Danish yoke, in 1523. In 1448, the race of the ancient kings having become extinct, *Christian I.*, of the house of *Oldenburg*, was raised to the throne, which his posterity still possess, and by this means Schleswick and Holstein have been added to the crown; the first immediately, and the latter in 1761 and 1773. The reformed faith was introduced into Denmark with little difficulty; Lutherism having been introduced in 1523, and Catholicism sup-

pressed in 1537. Previous to 1660 the crown of Denmark was elective, but at that period a great revolution occurred, by which the clergy and people, to get rid of the arbitrary tyranny of the nobles, conferred absolute power on the king. From this period there is little interesting in Danish history. At the conclusion of the last war, in which Denmark lost her navy, and suffered great injustice from England, Norway, which had so long been united to Denmark, was assigned to Sweden, the former obtaining in exchange the Duchy of Lauenburg and a sum of money. The Danes felt this sacrifice acutely; but it was one of apparent rather than real strength. In 1834, the king laid aside a large share of his power, and granted to his people a constitutional government, under which they seem to be perfectly happy. Since then the government has steadily exerted itself to draw forth the resources of the country, and to improve the condition of the inhabitants.

There is at the present period considerable difficulty between the German confederation and this kingdom, resulting from conflicting claims to jurisdiction over the provinces of Schleswick and Holstein. Several battles have been fought with various success, but hitherto the temper of both parties has prevented any understanding. The mediation of foreign states, however, has been offered and accepted, and it is to be hoped that peace may be restored.

#### HELGOLAND,

Or Heligoland, (Holy Island,) a group of two small islands in the German Ocean, 25 miles from the mouth of the Elbe, belonged formerly to Denmark, but was captured in 1807 by the British, who still retain it. The main land consists of a cliff, which rises almost perpendicularly from the sea, to a height varying from 90 to 170 feet, and is surmounted by a lighthouse, situated in  $54^{\circ} 11' 34''$  N. latitude, and  $7^{\circ} 53' 13''$  E. longitude; and is joined by a bottom of a rock to a low uninhabited down, where there are two good harbors. Between the main island and the other, which is named Sandy Island, is a road, where ships may anchor in 48 fathoms. The inhabitants, about 2,500 in number, live entirely upon the cliff, and subsist chiefly by fishing and acting as pilots. They are Frieslanders; retain their ancient manners and customs; and obtain turf, wood and other articles of subsistence from Hamburg and Cuxhaven, in exchange for fish. The island was formerly very much larger, but has been, in the course of the last thousand years, reduced by the action of the sea to the existing fragments

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## THE SCANDINAVIAN PENINSULA.

(SWEDEN AND NORWAY.)

THE greater portion of the Scandinavian Peninsula is occupied by Sweden and Norway, two kingdoms entirely distinct and independent of each other, except in their being governed by the same king, and comprised in the same geographical region. It will, therefore, be most convenient to describe first the natural features of the whole, and then divide the political and statistical account of each into separate heads.

Scandinavia forms a large peninsula, between the parallels of  $55^{\circ}$  and  $71^{\circ}$  north latitude, and between the meridians of  $5^{\circ}$  and  $32^{\circ}$  east longitude, being in extreme length 1,190 miles, and in its greatest breadth 470 miles, with an area of 292,700 square miles. It is bounded north by the Arctic

Ocean; east by Russian Lapland, the Gulf of Bothnia and the Baltic Sea; south by the Baltic, Cattegat and Skager-rack; and west by the Atlantic Ocean. It is connected with the rest of Europe by a broad isthmus of 200 miles, which separates the Gulf of Bothnia from the Arctic Sea.

The physical aspect of the country is peculiar. Throughout the whole length of the peninsula, from the Varangerfiord, in the north-east, to the Skager-rack, in the south-west, a line of lofty and rugged mountains, hills and table-lands, extends 1,100 miles, forming the watershed between the Atlantic Ocean and the basin of the Baltic Sea. North of  $63^{\circ}$  N. latitude the mountains form one ridge, rising abruptly on the west side, and gradually approaching the ocean as they proceed northward. To the south of  $63^{\circ}$  the elevated mass forms a table-land, having its eastern and western declivities deeply furrowed with valleys, and from nearly the same point various ridges branch off to the east and south, where they enclose several large lakes. The culmination of these mountains in some parts reaches 8,000 feet; and at no place are they at a greater distance than 100 miles from the western coast. On the eastern side the country descends in long slopes, interrupted by small level plains, and intersected occasionally by ranges of hills. The general elevation of the country varies from 300 to 2,000 feet. The most southerly portion of Sweden, however, is actually low and flat, apparently a portion of the great plain, which includes the neighboring regions of Denmark, Pomerania and Mecklenburg. The coasts of the peninsula are lined with an intricate labyrinth of islands and rocks, which vary in size from a mere point to more than a mile in length, and rise with bare and craggy cliffs from the bottom of the sea. The eastern coast is irregular in its outline, and is much indented with bays and small gulfs; but on the west coast immense fiords or firths penetrate the country in all directions. The Maelström, long celebrated as the most appalling whirlpool in Europe, is situated near the southern extremity of the Lofoden Islands, and is caused by the current rushing among the islands, which throw back its course, and cause it to make a circular sweep or whirl. Large ships and even whales have been dragged down by its suction.

The climate is generally severe, but a great difference in this respect is observed in the several parts of the peninsula. The north approaches the confines of perpetual winter, while its southern extremity, 16 degrees further from the pole, partakes of a genial and healthy character. The temperature is also modified on the same parallel by elevation, proximity to the sea, shelter, &c., and generally the eastern lowlands are much warmer than their northern position would indicate. The summers are short, but warm and dry, and the sun in the more elevated regions may be seen above the horizon throughout the season. The winter, however, is gloomy and severe, and the lakes and rivers, and even the Gulf of Bothnia are frozen over. At Stockholm, even, where the climate is comparatively moderate, the thermometer sinks to  $28^{\circ}$  below zero, and a hundred miles further north the mercury freezes in the tube. The atmosphere is generally pure, and the ravages of contagious diseases are never experienced; and while the short but bright summer brings corn to maturity in six or eight weeks, and spreads a flowery carpet over the earth, the pure bracing cold of winter invigorates the active powers of life, and is found, at least by the natives, far less irksome than the moist piercing blasts of more southern regions. The mean annual quantity of rain is  $17\frac{1}{2}$  inches. In Norway the climate is more temperate than in Sweden, owing to the influence of the sea-winds. The most dis-

agreeable part of the Scandinavian year is the spring, when the sudden melting of the snow renders the country almost impassable, and occasions dreadful ravages by inundations, and by the fall of rocks and earth from the mountains.

The mountain nucleus of Scandinavia is composed of primitive and transition rocks. Gneiss and granite, variously distributed, are the predominant formations. Mica-slate, associated with lime-stone quartz, clay-slate, and hornblende are also found, but in less abundance. These primitive stratified rocks are widely distributed over the country. Tracts belonging to the transition formation occur in many places, and particularly on the west side of the Christiana fiord; and this formation likewise includes the islands of the Baltic, and abounds in organic remains. Secondary formations are less extensive. Round Helsingborg there is a small coal basin, and coal is also found in Bornholm. Chalk deposits occur in the south of Sweden. Above all these there are immense deposits of sand and shells in various parts of the country, the latter occurring at 300, 400 and even 600 feet above the sea-level; and though no trace of volcanic action is known to exist, it is said that certain parts of the Swedish coasts are gradually rising, while others are as gradually subsiding. Earthquakes occur, though rarely.

Next to agriculture the mines of Sweden constitute the chief source of wealth. Green and white marble is abundant, and coal, in small quantity, is found in the south, but iron is scattered in lavish abundance throughout the country. Copper is also found, and some silver. All the mountains of Norway, and especially those of the south, contain a great number of minerals and metals, among which may be mentioned gold, silver, iron, copper and cobalt. There is a mine of plumbago at Engledal; alum mines at Egeberg; and quarries of granite, marble, mill-stone, whet-stone, slate and clay, are wrought in various parts of the country.

Sweden is not more fortunate in its soil than its climate. It cannot boast of any rich alluvial deposits. Coarse sand or gravel, but partially covered with a thin layer of fertile soil, forms in general the champaign country; and besides the woods, which occupy more than three-fourths of its surface, a large portion is covered with lakes, morasses, rivers, and with inconceivable numbers of boulder-stone or isolated rocks of every size. The soil of Norway is similarly characterised, and in both, vegetation is abridged by the length and severity of the winter. In some parts, however, it is very rich, and the valleys in particular are noted for their luxuriant fertility; but even in these much of the soil is thin, and obstructed by rocky knots rising above the surface.

The vegetation of the greater part of Scandinavia resembles that of Great Britain. The peninsula is particularly notable for its forests, which consist of beech, oak, maple, spruce-fir, Scotch-fir, aspen and birch, and not less than nine-tenths of the surface is woodland. The very small proportion of arable land produces articles of the same kind and quality as those of Britain; but the production of each is affected by the elevation of the soil, as well as by the difference of latitude. In the south grapes and mulberries come to perfection, while in the north not even grain is cultivated, and but few potatoes are grown. Above the snow line some lichens alone sustain a feeble existence, and after these vegetation ceases.

The animal kingdom possesses nothing peculiar. The bear prowls in the

northern forests, the badger is a denizen of the central districts, and the wolverine is found in the mountains of Lapland. The wolf, the fox, the lynx, marten, otter, seal, hedgehog, obter, squirrel and the beaver, are still found on the banks of the solitary lakes and rivers; and the elk in the least frequented districts. Of the domestic animals the principal are—the reindeer, on which the Laplanders chiefly depend for subsistence and clothing; horses, beeves, goats, sheep and swine. The horses are small, but swift and hardy, and those of Norway are remarkably sure-footed, a quality which admirably fits them for traversing the rocky mountain paths of that country. Eagles and falcons of various kinds, and a great variety and abundance of sea-fowl and game are indigenous, and useful as food to a great portion of the inhabitants.

### THE KINGDOM OF SWEDEN.

THIS kingdom forms the eastern portion of the Scandinavian peninsula, as far north as the river Tornea, and contains an area of about 107,700 square miles.

The inhabitants are composed of Swedes, Lapons or Laps, and Fins. The Swedes are a branch of the same great family as the Danes and Norwegians, but their language has been much modified, and books require to be translated from one language to the other. The language of the peasantry, however, does not differ in so great a degree, and is, with little difficulty, understood by all. The Swedish prevails from the Sound to the head of the Gulf of Bothnia, and is spoken by almost 3,000,000 persons. The Swedes are a brave, hardy, generous and enterprising people, and are highly distinguished for genius and national probity. They have generally light hair, blue eyes and fair complexion; the men have faces somewhat pale, high foreheads and long chins; are of middle size, with muscular frames and mild aspect. Their morality, however, is said to be debased, and drunkenness very prevalent. In 1835, one person out of every 114 was accused, and one out of every 140 convicted, of some criminal offence; and on an average of five years one in 49 in the city, and one in 176 in the country, had been punished each year for crimes! and “all the offences recorded, involved greater moral delinquency, than the breach of a regulation or conventional law of the state.”—(*Laing.*)

The population in 1839 numbered 3,109,772, having increased 325,062 in 20 years: consequently at the same rate the amount will now approach 3,400,000. It is unequally distributed over the country, becoming always thinner towards the north. The Lapons, or Laps, inhabit the northern provinces, and are represented as a diminutive and swarthy race. They are distinguished into mountaineers, foresters, fishermen, and beggars. They are more honest and moral than their southern neighbors, but drunkenness seems to be also the prevailing vice. The rigor of their climate, the misery they not unfrequently suffer, and the general sterility of the women, prevent any increase in these wild regions. Few of the Fins are now subject to Sweden, but in the northern provinces of Norway they have extended themselves as colonists. They are an industrious and robust people, differing morally and physically from the Laplanders, though they are probably of the same race.

With few exceptions the Swedes are all Lutherans, and Lutherism is the established religion of the state. All other sects are allowed the free exercise

of their ceremonies, but the Catholics and other dissenters are excluded from the Diet, and from the higher offices of state. The hierarchy consists of the Archbishop of Upsal, and the eleven bishops of Lund, Gotheborg, Wexio, Calmar, Linkioping, Skara, Carlstadt, Wisby, Westeraas, Strangnæs, and Hernosand; 70 arch-deacons, and 102 probsts (provosts or deans.) The whole establishment consists of 3,193 clergy, and 3,753 sextons or parish clerks, organists, and church servants. None of the clergy have a less salary than \$600 a year, besides parsonages and glebe lands. The clergy, as a body, have always been distinguished for piety and morality. The other sects are insignificant in numbers. The Catholics, who are chiefly foreigners, do not amount to 2,000, the greater part of whom reside in the capital. The Swedenborgians are also comparatively few, and the Jews scarcely count 1,000 souls. A new sect of religionists, however, has sprung up in northern Sweden, called "Læseren" or readers, which has already become numerous, and their numbers are said to be increasing, and their meetings to be attended by people from a great distance.

Ninety-nine persons out of every 100 of the total population can read and write. This general diffusion of elementary education is remarkable; but when it is stated that no person is allowed to marry or attend the communion table unless he has these qualifications, not to be wondered at. This is a good law, but arbitrary. Primary schools are established in every parish, and in the provincial towns there are gymnasia or high schools, in which the youths are prepared for the university. They are under the care of the bishops; and besides the higher branches of Greek and Roman literature, their course often embraces the oriental languages and the leading doctrines of theology. There are two universities—one at Upsal, and the other at Lund, each of which has separate faculties of law, physic, divinity, and philosophy and literature, each of which confers degrees, but these degrees are granted in such a manner as to indicate the qualifications of the recipient, being endorsed as granted with applause, commendation, or merely by sufferance. No person can enter on the practice of his professions without having taken up his degree, and none can be employed by government except they have furnished themselves with a degree in philosophy, but this regulation is dispensed with in case of the nobility.

The government is a sort of constitutional monarchy, the functions of which are vested in a hereditary king. The legislative power belongs conjointly to the king and a Diet of four chambers, elected by the nobles, clergy, burghesses and peasants, respectively. The king has a veto on all the acts of the Diet, and may also introduce projects of law for its consideration. The most important branch of the constitution, however, is the Council of State. The king can do nothing, except in military and diplomatic affairs, without consulting this council, which is obliged to keep a protocol of its proceedings, in which each member has a right to express his opinions. The king alone has the right to determine, after hearing the opinion of the council; but should his determination be contrary to law, the members are bound to insert their protest in the protocol, for which they are answerable to the Diet.

The law is administered by 264 courts of first instance, called Hered's Courts, one for each of the hereds or districts, into which the country is divided. From these primary courts appeal lies to the Lagman's courts, and from these again to the Hof, or superior courts, of which there are three, called the Swea or Swedish, the Scania, and the Gotha, established



in different parts of the kingdom. There is no direct appeal from the latter; but by petition to the king their decisions may be revised in the council of state, and confirmed or reversed. All criminal cases affecting life or property, are tried in the Hof courts. The ecclesiastical courts judge on divorce and other kindred suits. The executive officers of the courts are the "fogden" and the "lansman."

Relatively, Sweden is heavily taxed, yet the public revenues raised by taxation do not amount to \$10,000,000 a year. But notwithstanding their limited means, the Swedes have contrived, since 1814, not only to pay off the whole of their foreign debt and a great part of their home debt, but also to expend about \$15,000,000 on public works. The pressure of the public taxes is also very unequal. The agricultural classes have to pay annually in public and local taxes, more than one-third the produce of their land. If, moreover, it be considered that these are levied in a country where there is scarcely any commerce, and very little money in circulation, some notion may be formed of the oppressiveness of their public burdens.

The standing army amounts to 2,580 artillery, 4,705 cavalry, and 25,409 infantry—total, 32,694; and consists of two kinds of troops, the enlisted and the *indelta*; of the former class there are only about 6,000, all of whom are stationed in the capital or its environs. The *indelta* soldiers are a sort of military colonists, drawn from and maintained by the various districts of the kingdom. These are regularly trained, but are permitted to marry, and when not on active service support themselves and families on their little farms, each soldier having a house, barn, cow-house, and six acres of land for his subsistence, receiving pay only when in actual service. Besides the regular army, there is also the *beværing* or militia, consisting of every male between 20 and 25 years of age. They are exercised three weeks in each year, and are liable to be called out in case of war. This body amounts to about 110,000 men, making the whole disposable military force 142,694. No man is admitted into the standing army or navy without a certificate of good character from the clergyman of his parish; the consequence of which regulation is, that there are fewer depredations committed by the Swedish soldier, either at home or abroad, than by those of any other nation. The navy employs about 25,000 men, and consists of 250 or 260 gun-boats for the protection of the coasts. The Swedes have also 11 ships of 74 and 84 guns, 8 frigates, 4 corvettes, 6 brigs, with several smaller vessels. There are three naval stations for ships of the line, at Stockholm, Gotheborg, and Karlsrona. The flotilla of gun-boats is chiefly stationed at the two former, which, communicating by the Great Gotha Canal, afford the means of uniting without exposure to disasters of the sea, or attack from an enemy. When not on duty the seamen are supported in the same manner as the military arm. The ordinary naval expenses do not exceed \$500,000 annually.

Seven-ninths of the population is engaged in agriculture. Within a few years, in consequence of the adoption of improved modes of culture, and in spite of the climate, the lands have raised in value, and the production become large enough to allow of exportation; and the only difficulty the Swedish farmer has now to contend with is the want of a market. The average rate of fecundity is  $4\frac{3}{4}$  grains for one. Cattle feeding and sheep farming are not much attended to, and the sheep disappears north of 63°. The total annual value of grain produced is \$46,000,000.

Both the seas and fresh waters swarm with fish, which afford employment

and subsistence to many of the inhabitants. Salmon is the most important of the fresh water fish, and is most abundant in the northern rivers, where the principal fisheries are established. Herrings are sometimes taken in incredible numbers at Gotheborg, and in the Baltic the stromming fishery is a very important branch of industry. The stromming is about the size of a sprat, but a much more delicate fish. They are cured like herrings, and a barrel of them is as necessary in every household in Sweden, as of herrings in Norway.

Next to agriculture the mines form the chief source of the wealth of Sweden. Iron is abundant throughout the country. The mountain Gellivara in Lapmark, 1,800 feet high, is one mass of the richest iron ore, but its situation beyond the polar circle deprives it of its real value. In various other places, however, there are similar hills; and even islands of compact iron ore are met with on the coast. The annual product amounts to about 300,000 skip-pounds\* of bar, and 33,600 of manufactured iron. The forests supply fuel for smelting. Swedish iron is superior in malleability and ductility to any other—a superiority which is attributed, in part, to the use of wood instead of coal or peat in the process of smelting. The number of mines in Sweden is 586, and of these no fewer than 361 are close together in the heart of the kingdom. Danemora, the principal mine, produces yearly about 4,000 tons of metal, which is particularly adapted to the manufacture of steel. Copper, next to iron, forms the most important of the minerals of Sweden, and the production is stated at about 1,000 tons a year. Gold is found at Fahlun, but the produce is too small to pay expenses of collection; and the same may be said of the silver mines. Coal, sulphur, vitriol, cobalt, &c., are also produced in small amounts.

Manufactures are in a very low condition. Every art and trade is monopolized by corporations, which operates as a complete bar to improvement; and of the population only one-seventh part is engaged in this branch of industry. Coarse linens are the chief staple. Machinery for spinning has been introduced, but the experiment is too recent to warrant an opinion as to its success. The other articles of manufacture are such as required by the ordinary wants of the people.

With regard to commerce and general trade Sweden is in a much similar state as in respect of its manufactures. It has indeed very little. The principal exports consist of the natural products of the soil, among which iron ranks first, then timber, copper, tar and grain. The imports are sugar, coffee, tobacco, salt or smoked fish, salt, leather, hemp, silk, cotton and wine, chiefly articles of domestic luxury or comfort. The annual amount of mercantile shipping is stated at 130,000 tons. The principal ports are Stockholm and Gotheborg. The currency consists almost exclusively of paper money, and even this has depreciated to one third its nominal value. Gold and silver has consequently fled from the kingdom, and scarcely any coin, except small pieces of copper, is to be seen. The country is flooded with small notes, some representing the small sum of six cents.

Internal communication is provided for by excellent roads, which are kept in order by the farmers of the several districts, who meet at stated times to assess themselves for the purpose. In some instances they are made and repaired by the government. At short intervals on all the main roads there is a post station to which the peasants are obliged to bring their

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\* Skip-pound = 280 pounds avoudupois.

horses on certain days, by rotation, to be in waiting to convey travellers. For internal water communication Sweden has remarkable facilities in her lakes, as well as in her rivers and canals. The principal canal is that of Gotha, which connects the Wener and Wetter lakes with the Baltic, near Soderköping. The canal of Trollhatta was formed to avoid the falls of Gotha-elf, and consists principally of a series of locks rising above each other on the face of the declivity, over which the river falls. It is dug out of solid rock. These, with the Gotha river and intervening lakes, form a complete navigable communication across the middle of Sweden. The canal of Arboga connects the lake Hielmar with the Mälar, and the canal of Stromsholm forms a communication between the Hielmar lake and the lake of Barken. The canal of Sodertelge connects the Mälar with the Baltic, north of Stockholm. Several other canals for like purposes have been constructed, and a number of others are projected, which, when completed, will be of immeasurable advantage to the interests of the kingdom.

The administrative divisions of Sweden are 34 "lans" or governments, which are subdivided into "fogderier" or districts. Swedish geographers, however, divide the country into three large regions, namely, Norrland or the north country; Svealand, or Sweden Proper, and Gothaland or Gothia; each of these comprising several lans, as stated in the following table:

<i>Governments.</i>	<i>Area in sq. milcs.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Population to square mile.</i>	<i>Chief Towns</i>
<b>NORRLAND :—</b>				
Norrbottn .....	33,090 .....	46,422 .....	— .....	Lubea,
Westerbotten .....	29,435 .....	55,256 .....	— .....	Umea,
Wester-Norrland .....	9,516 .....	85,242 .....	— .....	Hernösand,
Jämtland .....	19,618 .....	45,517 .....	— .....	Östersund.
Total .....	91,659 .....	232,437 .....	2.5 .....	
<b>SVEALAND :—</b>				
Stockholm .....	2,916 .....	195,222 .....	— .....	STOCKHOLM,
Upsala .....	2,092 .....	85,393 .....	— .....	Upsal,
Westeraas .....	2,645 .....	92,411 .....	— .....	Westeraas,
Nyköping .....	2,512 .....	113,753 .....	— .....	Nyköping,
Oerebro .....	3,270 .....	125,393 .....	— .....	Oerebro,
Carlstad .....	6,957 .....	192,879 .....	— .....	Carlstad,
Storra-copparberg .....	12,282 .....	141,208 .....	— .....	Fahlun,
Gefleborg .....	7,542 .....	109,382 .....	— .....	Gefle.
Total .....	40,216 .....	1,055,641 .....	26.2 .....	
<b>GOTHALAND :—</b>				
Linköping .....	4,270 .....	200,588 .....	— .....	Linköping,
Calmar .....	4,243 .....	179,300 .....	— .....	Calmar,
Jonköping .....	4,414 .....	148,595 .....	— .....	Jonköping,
Kronoberg .....	3,795 .....	118,309 .....	— .....	Wexio,
Blekinge .....	1,137 .....	93,849 .....	— .....	Carlsrona,
Skaraborg .....	3,323 .....	179,449 .....	— .....	Mariestad,
Elfsborg .....	5,045 .....	218,698 .....	— .....	Wenersborg,
Göteborg & Bohus .....	1,908 .....	164,598 .....	— .....	Göteborg,
Halmstad .....	1,906 .....	94,832 .....	— .....	Halmstad,
Christianstad .....	2,439 .....	162,809 .....	— .....	Christianstad,
Malmöhus .....	1,456 .....	218,074 .....	— .....	Malmö,
Gottland, (island) .....	1,262 .....	42,589 .....	— .....	Wisby.
Total .....	35,198 .....	1,821,694 .....	51.8 .....	
Lakes Wener, Wetter, &c. .....	3,640 .....	— .....	— .....	
Grand Total .....	170,715 .....	3,109,772 .....	18.2 .....	

**STOCKHOLM**, the capital of the kingdom, is situated upon a strait, which connects the Mälar Lake with an arm of the Baltic. Latitude  $59^{\circ} 20' N.$ , longitude  $18^{\circ} 13' E.$  The principal public buildings are placed on three islands, named respectively Stockholm, (castle island,) Riddarholm, (knight's island,) and Helge-antsholm, (holy ghost island,) connected with each other and the mainland on both sides by several bridges. The greater part of the private houses are built on the mainland, which on the north side slopes gradually from the shore, but on the south side rises in bold abrupt cliffs, where the white houses nestle among shading trees. There are many public edifices, bridges, squares and monuments in good taste, and the fine churches, quays, and royal palace give the city an air of magnificence, but the private residences are generally of very ordinary appearance. In the centre of the city the streets are narrow, crooked and dirty; but elsewhere they are wide and regular. The palace is a modern building, in the Italian style, and for architectural beauty and effect surpasses all the other city palaces in Europe. It stands on the Stockholm. The city contains a great number of scientific and literary establishments, and the Royal Library is said to be one of the richest in the north of Europe. The population amounts to about 80,000, of which only about 11,000 are of the producing classes, and 31,500 only have other visible means of subsistence, leaving nearly the remaining half without capital, trade, or other fixed means of living. **WAXHOLM**, a small town with batteries and other military works, is the seaward key of Stockholm.

**UPSAL**, built on a gentle height and part of an adjoining plain, in a very level and fertile country, is one of the most beautiful old-fashioned cities of Europe. The larger portion of its 15,000 inhabitants depend more or less on the ancient and highly celebrated university which still flourishes among them. Only a few are engaged in manufactures and the little trade carried on by means of the Sala, a sluggish stream which runs through the city towards the Mälar, and affords the means of steam navigation to Stockholm. The new university is a handsome building in the simple Florentine style, built of freestone; the cathedral is a lofty building of brick, but the finest of all the ecclesiastical buildings of the kingdom. The university was founded in 1478, and is usually attended by 800 students. **OLD UPSAL**, (Gamla-Upsala,) consists chiefly of a few huts grouped round a set of tumuli or barrows, which are popularly considered to be the tombs of Oden, Thor and Freya; and on the top of a little mount beside them, stands a venerable church, said to be 1800 years old, and to have been a place of pagan worship during many centuries. **DANEMORA** is noted for its iron mines, which yield a more perfect metal than any others in Sweden. **FAHLUN** consists of long, silent, wide streets, with good houses and 4,000 inhabitants, in the midst of a region of copper mines, extending about 28 miles in length by seven in breadth. The wide space is enclosed and partly penetrated by rocks of reddish granite, which, towards the middle, gradually merge into a micaceous rock, the greater part of which is composed of iron and copper pyrites. For many centuries these mines were perhaps the most productive in the world, yielding annually 8,000,000 pounds of pure metal. Their present annual produce is thus estimated by Bremner: "copper 4,500 skip-pounds, (280 lbs.); gold 250 ducats; silver 500 marcs; lead 100 to 150 skip-pounds; vitriol 600 to 800 tons; ochre, generally 1,000 tons; brimstone 20 to 30 skip-pounds. The ore is not rich; the best is said to yield 20 per cent., but the poorer sort only  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent." **GEFLE** is a seaport on the Gulf of Bothnia, with 8,000 inhabitants. Next to Stockholm and Gotheborg it is the most important trading town in the kingdom.

**GOTHEBORG** (Gottenburg,) is a large commercial town on the left bank of the Gotha-Elf, near the sea. It stands in a wide hollow surrounded by rocky heights, and consists of regular, wide and paved streets, with lofty flat-roofed houses, all built of stone or well stuccoed brick. It has 25,000 inhabitants, who carry on an active commerce. The Gotha-Elf is navigable from the sea to the falls of Trollhattan, where the navigation is continued by a series of locks, along side the river, which here rushes down a deep gorge, a height of 190 feet, and between the canal and the river is a range of saw-mills belonging to a Glasgow company. **NORRKÖPING** is a flourishing commercial and manufacturing seaport town, on an arm of the Baltic, with 10,000 inhabitants. Its cloths are considered the best in Sweden. **CALMAR**, on the west side of the strait, formed by the island of Oeland, has a considerable maritime trade and 5,000 inhabitants. **CARLSKRONA** on the south-east coast, is a strong town built upon several islands, with a fine harbor, which is the usual rendezvous of the Swedish navy. It contains docks dug in the rock, building slips and formidable batteries, which render it almost impregnable towards the sea. Its citadel, upon an islet, is reckoned a masterpiece of military architecture; its granite walls are 20 feet high and mounted with 200 pieces of cannon. Population, 12,000. **MALMÖ** is a considerable trading and manufacturing town almost opposite to Copenhagen. Population, 8,000. Eleven miles further north is **LUND**, the seat of one of the two universities of Sweden. **VÄNÄS**, at the entrance of the Gotha canal, is a strong fortress, and is intended to serve as a rallying point for the defence of the kingdom, in cases of foreign invasion. **WISBY**, on the west side of Gotthland, and capital of the island, is a most remarkable place. It is a city of the middle ages, existing almost unchanged to the present day, yet so fallen in importance that though the space within its walls is capacious enough for 40,000 persons, it yet contains only 4,200, who are badly lodged in little tenements built under edifices of great cost and magnificence. During the 10th and 11th centuries Wisby was one of the richest commercial cities in Europe, and still contains the remains of 12 churches built at that period. The harbor is small and not very deep; but at **SLÖTÖHAMN**, on the west side of the island, and **CAPELSHAMN** on the east, there are harbors with sufficient depth of water, it is said, for ships of war or steam war-vessels.

**HERNÖSAND**, in Norrland, has a fine harbor with considerable trade. From its printing press most of the works for the use of the Laplanders has been produced. Population under 2,000. **LULEÄ**, near the head of the gulf of Bothnia, and **UMÄÄ** further south, are two seaport towns, with some little trade. **HÜDDIKSVÄL** is chiefly engaged in the stromming fisheries. The trade of shipbuilding has started up in all these little towns within the last 20 years. The vessels are built entirely of fir, but are cheap, if not durable, and are purchased by Lubeck, Bremen and Hamburg merchants. They are all increasing in extent and population.

The early pages of Swedish history are obscure, and possess little interest. The Swedes being discontented with their king, Albert of Mecklenburg, who had been raised to the throne in 1365, Margaret, Queen of Denmark, styled the Semiramis of the north, a princess of extraordinary talent, availed herself of the opportunity to establish her authority over Sweden. She was successful, and by the treaty of Calmar in 1397, the three kingdoms of Denmark, Sweden and Norway were united under her sway. But the Swedes became dissatisfied with the union, and the tyrannical proceedings of Christian II. excited a rebellion that terminated in the emancipation of the Swedes under the famous Gustavus Vasa in 1520. In 1523, this prince

was raised by the unanimous suffrages of the people to the throne. Gustavus, who subsequently introduced the Protestant religion, died in 1560. His son Eric, who succeeded him, was an imbecile, and Gustavus, the grandson of the great man, ascended the throne in 1611. This great prince acquired Ingria and Carelia from the Russians, Livonia from the Poles, with sundry valuable territories from the Danes. He was also the acknowledged leader of the Protestant party against the power and ambition of Austria; and though his glorious and successful career was prematurely terminated at the battle of Lutzen in 1632, his exertions were mainly instrumental in bringing about that freedom of religious worship, and that equal distribution of power, established by the treaty of Westphalia. No nation, indeed, occupied a more commanding position than Sweden in the thirty years' war; and the constant valor of her soldiers in that great struggle of liberty against despotism, was as remarkable as the success which so invariably followed the Swedish arms was glorious.

The success that had attended the arms of Sweden under Gustavus, continued to attend them under his daughter Christina, who abdicated the throne in 1564, and his other successors down to Charles XII., who became king in 1687. The excesses of this extraordinary man proved almost the ruin of his country, and gave Russia a lasting ascendancy over Sweden. He was succeeded by his sister Ulrica Eleanor; but the people disgusted at the madness of the king had circumscribed materially the royal authority. It was, however, again enlarged in 1772. Gustavus IV. succeeded to the throne in 1792, embroiled himself with France, and engaged in a quixotic contest with Russia, which resulted in his dethronement in 1809, when his uncle, who took the title of Charles XIII., was raised to the throne, prince Christian of Holstein-Augustenberg being at the same time declared crown prince and successor. On the premature death of the latter, Bernadotte, prince of Ponte Corvo, was elected successor to the crown by a diet held at Oerebro in 1810, and having accepted the honor he soon after arrived in Sweden, of which he became king on the death of Charles XIII., in 1818. He has been a father to his country, and as such has lately died, esteemed and honored by the people over whom he was called to reign, and his dynasty, if faithful to the trust reposed in it, will long adorn the royal title. This celebrated man was once a hotel waiter in France, and having enlisted in the grand army soon distinguished himself, and was elevated to the highest dignities by the emperor. He was the only one of Napoleon's marshals who retained the kingdoms which they acquired in the last war. He is succeeded by his son.—(See Denmark, and Norway.)

#### THE KINGDOM OF NORWAY.

NORWAY (*Norge* Norw.—*Norwegen* Germ,) occupies the western portion of the Scandinavian peninsula, and covers an area of 121,725 square miles, and has a population of about 1,400,000 inhabitants.

The Norwegians belong to the same family as the Danes, and speak a dialect of their language. They are, however, generally a smaller race than their confreres of Denmark and Sweden, but possess much spirit, and are lively, frank and undaunted. They are, in the same degree with other northern nations, grossly addicted to intoxication, and corn or potatoe brandy forms an indispensable beverage to old and young. The population in 1835 numbered 1,194,827, having increased from 1825, 143,509, or 13.6 per cent. Should it have retained the same ratio of increase, it will, at the

present time, amount to about 1,400,000. The proportion of the sexes are nearly equal, being in the ratio of 100 males to 104 females. Of the whole people scarcely 150,000 live in large towns, the remainder, or 1,250,000, being scattered over the country in small villages and farms.

The whole people may be said to profess the doctrines of Luther, which have been adopted as the state religion. The church consists of the five bishops of Christiana, Christiansand, Bergen, Trondheim, and Norrland or Alstahong; 49 deans, and 417 pastors. The country is divided into 336 "prest-gilds" or parishes. The incomes of the bishops are reckoned at \$4,500 a year, and those of the clergy from \$850 to \$1,700, derived from an assessment on grain, in lieu of tithes, &c. The patronage is vested in the bishops and council of state, a committee of which has the charge of all church affairs. "But, as in Sweden, religious feeling is at a low ebb; and in the wilder districts the church forms a sort of market-cross, where the people meet to transact their secular business."

Education is universally diffused, but the standard of excellence is rather low, reading and writing constituting nearly the whole. The schools are supported by a poll tax. "The higher department of university education at Christiana," says Laing, "is very expensive; and, besides, there is not such a demand for educated men in the medical, legal, and commercial professions, as in more densely peopled and more commercial countries; and the supply is adjusted to the demand. The restrictions on the free exercise of trade and industry, also operate with great force in depressing general education."

The government is a limited monarchy. The executive power is vested in the King of Sweden, and is exercised by a viceroy and council of state; but the legislative power resides solely in the Stor-thing or Parliament, composed of members chosen by electors nominated for this purpose by the people of the several districts. None, however, can vote unless 25 years of age, and possessed of property worth 150 dollars, or a life-rent of a property worth that sum. Along with each sitting member a substitute is elected, who takes his place in case of sickness, death, or other hindrance. The Stor-thing meets triennially, and nominally lasts three months, but may also be convoked by the king at any time, and may of itself adjourn from time to time to complete business that may have been left over from the regular session. The power of this parliament is unlimited, and though the king's assent is required to all laws, yet if the same law be passed by three successive Stor-things it becomes law without his consent. The king appoints all officials, but his nominations must be approved by the Stor-thing. The king is not represented in this assembly, but a royal councillor is admitted at any time to communicate messages from the throne. At its sittings the Stor-thing divides itself into two chambers. One-fourth is formed into a committee called the "lag-thing," while the remainder forms the "odels-thing." All motions, however, are discussed in the first instance before the whole house; and if entertained, are referred to committees to report upon. The report is debated and voted upon; and if approved, a bill in terms of it is ordered to be brought into the odels-thing, from which it passes to the lag-thing, to be there deliberated upon, rejected, amended, or approved. The members are paid for their services. Hereditary nobility was abolished by the Stor-thing in 1821, against the king's will.

For judicial purposes the kingdom is divided into four "stifts" or provinces, which are sub-divided into 64 districts. For each of these divisions

there is a separate tribunal, with a supreme court of appeal at Christiana, named the Hoieste-ret-court, which is one of the three estates of the constitution, being independent of both the executive and legislative branches. This court consists of seven judges.

The revenue of Norway is so flourishing that the government has been able to pay off the whole of the debt of Denmark, assumed in 1814. The amount has increased gradually with the population and industry of the kingdom. The customs yield about two-thirds of the expenditure, and consequently the direct taxes are light. The whole amounts to about \$2,250,000 per annum.

The Norwegian army consists of about 2,000 troops of all arms, besides 30,000 enrolled militia. The king has the entire disposal of the army in Scandinavia, but it cannot be led into a foreign country, except with the concurrence of the Stor-thing. The navy consists of 1 frigate, 1 sloop, 2 brigs, 8 schooners, and 88 gun-boats and galleys.

Agriculture employs the great bulk of the Norwegian population, and few countries in Europe have made such advances towards perfection in rural economy. In apparent plenty and completeness the farms may vie with the best in England. The farmers are owners of their estates, which produce all the necessities of life, and afford a surplus for the purchase of luxuries. The mountaineers are chiefly engaged in cattle-breeding, and though not so comfortably situated as the corn growers of the valleys, are still, in many respects, superior to their congeners of other continental states. The principal agricultural produce consists of oats, rye, wheat, bear, hops, flax, and potatoes. Perhaps Norway owes something to the scarcity of its numbers, for it is evident that the country is incapable of supporting a crowded population. Generally speaking, only the valleys are inhabited; on the dividing ridges there is little or no cultivation, and, indeed, no soil to cultivate; but only rounded masses of gneiss, and micaceous rocks, with juniper, fir, aspen, birch, and beech trees, which grow wherever there is crevice to support them.

The fisheries employ the whole population of Finmark and the Lofoden Islands. But this trade is confined to privileged corporations, and every one engaged in it must be licensed from certain cities to which the fisheries belong. The average value of the winter fishery is about half a million sterling, and the Norwegians deliver fish better assorted, and of superior quality to those of even Scotland. Besides these important general fisheries, there is in every creek of the fiords, even a hundred miles up from the ocean, abundance of cod, whiting, haddocks, flounders, sea-bream, and herring, caught for daily use, and for sale by the seafaring peasantry. On the rocky shores of Christiansand lobsters are more plentiful than in any other part of the world, and from Bergen so many as 260,000 pairs have been exported in one year. The rivers and lakes are likewise well supplied with fish, which may, indeed, be said to constitute the basis of a Norwegian repast.

Norway produces a great variety of minerals, but the mines are most wrought in the southern mountains. The principal species are gold, silver, iron, copper, cobalt, &c. The copper mines are in the northern part of the kingdom: the most considerable are those of Roraas, which were discovered in 1644, at the base of the Dovre-field. The produce of the iron mines is stated at about 15,000 tons annually. There are also, in different places, quarries of granite, marble, millstone, whetstone, slate, and clay.

Norway has no manufactures on a large scale. In the rural districts



every family makes its own cloth, and furnishes its own sempstress, tanner, shoemaker, and blacksmith. Every person can work in wood, and domestic implements, ornaments and furniture, are all made by the peasants themselves, and after their own fashion.

Timber, in the preparation of which large numbers are employed, and fish, are almost the only exportable articles of the country, and find their way to every part of Europe, chiefly in Norwegian vessels, which, in return, bring home whatever foreign articles are required, at the cheapest rate of freight. But, besides wood and fish, the metals are extensively exported. The principal imports are corn, colonial produce, woollen, linen and cotton goods, with wine, brandy, &c. The inland trade, and that between Norway and Sweden, is also extensive. The principal commercial towns are—Bergen, Drammen, Christiania, Langesund, Christiansand, Trondheim, Frederikstadt, Arendal, Oster-Rusoer, Laurvig, Tonsberg, and Hammerfest. The national bank is located at Trondheim, and its notes form the principal money currency of the country, and even on the exchange at Hamburg are valued as high as 111 dollars paper for 100 specie. The roads which connect the principal towns are good, and travelling is accomplished as in Sweden, by the peasants being obliged to send their horses to the post-stations in rotation. The country contains no railroads or canals.

Norway is divided into 17 “amts” or districts, which may be arranged according to the three geographical regions within which they are situated, viz.: Nordlandens, Nordenfjelds, and Sondenfjelds, as stated in the following table:

<i>Districts.</i>	<i>Area in sq. miles.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Pop. to sq. mile.</i>	<i>Capitals.</i>
<b>NORDLANDENS :—</b>				
Nordland.....	15,052	57,791	“	Bodoë.
Finmark, (and Lapland).....	27,470	33,394	“	Tromsøe
Total.....	42,522	94,185	2.2	
<b>NORDENFJELDS :—</b>				
Søndre-Bergenhuus.....	6,285	104,471	“	} Bergen.
Nordre-Bergenhuus.....	7,515	69,778	“	
Romsdal.....	5,933	70,174	“	Romsdal.
Søndre-Trondhjem.....	7,094	77,724	“	} Trondhjem
Nordre-Trondhjem.....	8,668	57,422	“	
Total.....	35,495	399,569	11.2	
<b>SONDENFJELDS :—</b>				
Aggerhuus.....	1,893	90,326	“	CHRISTIANIA.
Smaalehnene.....	1,566	62,921	“	Moss.
Hedemarken.....	9,516	77,929	“	Hof.
Christian.....	9,418	90,903	“	Biri.
Buskerød.....	4,787	76,669	“	Drammen.
Bratsberg.....	5,560	63,139	“	Skien.
Nedenaes and Raabygdelaet.....	4,256	45,842	“	Arendal.
Lister and Mandal.....	2,042	54,252	“	Christiansand.
Stavanger.....	3,805	62,859	“	Stavanger.
Jarlsberg and Laurvig.....	856	54,516	“	Laurvig.
Total.....	43,708	701,073	16.0	
Grand Total.....	121,725	1,194,827	9.8	

CHRISTIANIA, the capital, stands at the head of a long fiord, on a low slope surrounded with beautiful heights, in 59° 50' N. latitude, and 10° 48' E. longitude. The royal palace is the only building worthy of notice. The

quarter, however, inhabited by the higher classes, is laid out regularly, with spacious, and even handsome streets. Christiania is the seat of the supreme government, of the higher courts of law, and has several excellent literary institutions. The foreign trade is considerable. Population, 24,000. **DRAMMEN**, 24 miles south-west of Christiania, a large straggling town, with 8,000 inhabitants, exports more timber than any other town in Norway. **KONGSBERG** is noted for its valuable silver mine, which yields a profit of \$100,000 annually. Three miles below Kongsberg the Louven-elf forms a series of tremendous falls, called the "Laabron-fos;" and 40 miles west by north of Kongsberg, the Maan river has a fall of 450 feet, called the "Rinkan-fos." **MODUM** is noted for its rich mine of cobalt. **ARENDAL**, **LAURVIG**, **RUSOER**, **GRIMSTADT**, and **TONSBERG**, are all seaport towns on the coast, south-west of the capital, and possess a number of vessels, which carry on a considerable trade. **FREDERIKSVÖRN**, the naval arsenal of Norway, is a strongly fortified town, 68 miles south-west of Christiania. **CHRISTIANSAND**, 37 miles E. N. E. of the Naze, is a considerable trading town, with a fine fortified harbor and a quarantine station. Population, 7,765. **MANDAL** is a small seaport town at the mouth of the river of the same name. **STAVANGER**, on the North Sea, is noted for its magnificent harbor, its antiquity, and its cathedral, considered to be the finest Gothic monument in Norway. Population, 5,000. **FREDERIKSTADT** has a good harbor and considerable trade, and is believed to be the only town in Norway built of stone. Population, 2,500.

**BERGEN**, situated at the head of a deep bay on the west coast, 365 miles north of Christiansand, is a well-built town, and when viewed from the sea has a very picturesque appearance. It contains a number of excellent public buildings, and has manufactures of tobacco, porcelain, &c., but the fishery is the principal business. The town is surrounded by lofty walls, and protected by several forts, a garrison of 300 men, and a squadron of the navy. The harbor is safe and commodious, but owing to rocks is of difficult access. Population, 23,000.

**TRONDHEIM**, (Trondhjem or Drontheim,) formerly the residence of the Norwegian kings, is situated on the shore of a vast fiord in N. latitude  $63^{\circ} 25'$ . The town is built wholly of wood, and has been seven times burnt to the ground; but the houses are handsome and tastefully ornamented. It contains a cathedral, built in the room of another one burnt in 1719, which had been for centuries a noted place of pilgrimage. It contains a number of highly creditable institutions, and a seminary for the instruction of the Laplanders. It is the entrepôt of the copper produced by the rich mines of Roraas. Population, 13,000. The environs are very beautiful.

**CHRISTIANSUND** is a small town, with a fine harbor, flourishing fisheries, &c. **ALSTAHONG** is a miserable town, and only remarkable as the most northerly bishop's see in Europe. **TROMSØE**, capital of Nordlandens, is a small town on an island, and has considerable trade. There is a newspaper published here, probably the most northern in the world.

**HAMMERFEST**, a small town in Finmark, upon the island of Hoaloe, has only about 100 inhabitants, but carries on considerable trade. The value of the exports, consisting of fish, skins and hides, feathers, horns, walrus' teeth, wool, train oil, and copper ore, is about half a million dollars annually. But within the custom-house bounds of Hammerfest there are upwards of thirty privileged establishments, over which the officers have no control, and with which the Russians have the privilege of trading one month in each year. **WARDØEHUUS** is a small fortress, with a harbor and about 100

inhabitants, in  $70^{\circ} 22'$  N. latitude. Every soldier who serves in this remote fortress for four years, voluntarily, is exempt from military duties for the remainder of his life.

Norway was under the absolute government of the Danish monarch from a very early period until 1814, when it was ceded to Sweden. Upon this the Norwegians declared themselves independent, formed a constitution, and called the Prince Christian of Denmark to the throne: but the Crown Prince of Sweden having advanced into Norway with an army, the new king resigned the crown in October following, and the Stor-thing entered into an arrangement with Bernadotte to confer the crown upon him, on condition of his maintaining the constitution which they had established. These terms were accepted on the 4th November. Few countries in Europe enjoy so democratical a government, and the king may be said to occupy the throne more in name than in reality. The Stor-thing is all-powerful, and is pursuing that enlightened policy that must ultimately lead the nation to prosperity.

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## THE EMPIRE OF RUSSIA.

THIS extensive and powerful empire, far eclipsing in its territorial expansion every other nation of ancient or modern times, and having all its possessions contiguous one to the other, comprises the whole northern portion of the eastern hemisphere, from the Gulf of Bothnia and the frontiers of Posen on the west to the Pacific Ocean, and Behring's straits on the east; and extends thence to the American continent on which it has also a large territory. Within these limits is an area of nearly 8,000,000 square miles, or a superficies equal to two Europes or the whole of North America; and this vast territory is under the dominion of one man! Our purpose, however, is not to describe the whole in the present instance, but to confine our remarks to the European portion. The possessions of Russia in Asia and America are described fully under their proper geographical connections.

EUROPEAN RUSSIA lies between the Arctic Ocean on the north, and the Caucasian mountains, the Black Sea and the Danube on the south; and between the Ural mountains, Ural river and the Caspian Sea on the east, and Norway, Sweden, the Gulf of Bothnia, the Baltic Sea, Prussia and Austria on the west; extending from north to south over twenty-seven degrees, from  $43^{\circ}$  to  $70^{\circ}$ , and in some parts to  $78^{\circ}$  north latitude; and from east to west over forty-seven degrees, from  $18^{\circ}$  to  $65^{\circ}$  east longitude. The greatest extent measured from the most southerly point of the Crimea to the north coast of Lapland, or the mouth of the White Sea, is 1,720 miles; and from the western border of Poland to the 60th meridian, along the 52d parallel, 1,791 miles. The superficial area is estimated at 2,021,887 square miles, or more than one-half of the whole of Europe.

With the exception of a small territory in the north-west, the whole of this extensive country belongs to the great plain which extends through the middle of Europe, from the German Ocean to the Caspian Sea and the Ural mountains. It is not, however, perfectly level, for there are at least three distinct slopes, down which its waters are carried to the adjoining seas.

The main water-shed, which is only a few feet in elevation, may be traced from a spur of the Carpathians, near the source of the Dneister, in an irregular north-eastern and eastern course, to the Ourals, near the source of the Petchora. The greatest elevation is in the Valdai hills, and there only in its highest point 1,370 feet above the level of the sea. The northern slope, which forms the basin of the White Sea, possesses a barren soil and a severe climate, while the southern slope may be divided into three regions: Central Russia, the Steppes, and the country beyond the Volga. Central Russia, extending from the Carpathian mountains and the western limits of Poland to the banks of the Volga, with a breadth of about eleven degrees of latitude, improves progressively towards the south, the southern half being a country of great fertility. Between the fertile region and the Caspian and Black Seas, extend the "Steppes," which are usually divided into the higher and the lower. The former extend westward from the Don and the Manytsh, along the sea of Azov and the Black Sea, including three fourths of the Crimea, cross the Dneiper, and spread westward along its right bank until they meet the outskirts of the fertile regions of Little Russia. Their surface is in general not more than 200 feet above the level of the sea, and throughout is covered with a long, coarse grass, which feeds immense droves of horses, but is unsuited for cattle. In the hollows of the rivers, however, and in some other places, cultivation is profitable, and in the Crimea, where vegetation is capable of being produced, the whole surface of the Steppes is covered with plants, whose gaudy blossoms fill the air with refreshing fragrance. The lower Steppes extend along the shores of the Caspian, from the Ural to the bottom of the Caucasus, with a breadth of 250 or 300 miles. The surface in the mountain districts is covered with a fine sand mixed with shells, entirely denuded of vegetable growths; and the soil is everywhere impregnated with salt, while the lakes which occur in it yield a quantity of that article in summer sufficient to supply the greater part of Russia. The country to the east of the Volga is hilly and even mountainous, being traversed by the spurs of the Ourals. The elevated parts are covered with forests, but in the valleys the soil is moderately fertile. The third slope which inclines to the Baltic extends from the borders of Prussia to the Gulf of Finland and the lakes Ladoga and Onega, and is in general a country of moderate fertility, interspersed with a number of lakes, and containing some sandy tracts, intermixed with portions of rich soil. The country to the north-west of these lakes, the White Sea and the Gulf of Finland, including Finland and Lapmark, is in the northern and western parts covered with mountains, the main range of which extends parallel to the Gulf of Bothnia, till it gradually disappears in the neighborhood of Bjorneberg. The centre of Finmark is an elevated plateau, full of lakes, and covered with low rocky heights. Lapmark is exceedingly barren, but the valleys among the mountains in the southern parts of Finland, contain rich meadows and good arable land. The coasts of Finland are lined with precipices, reefs and rocky islands, and in some parts of the lowlands the surface is overspread with enormous blocks of granite.

NOVAIA ZEMLIA, in the Arctic Ocean, consists of two islands divided by a strait named the Matotschkin Skar, and extends from the Straits of Kara towards the north north-east, for about 400 miles, with a breadth of only 50. It is a sterile region, traversed by a range of mountains through its whole length, and the eastern coast is so obstructed by ice that no navigator has yet been able to explore it. The climate is too rigorous for man's habitation,

and the only vegetation consists of a few lichens and mosses. **WAIGATZ** is a small island between **NOVAIA ZEMLIA** and the continent. There are a number of other islands off the north coast, but so desolate and barren as to be useless to man. The Russian islands in the Baltic are of more importance. **Oesel**, **Dago**, &c., separate the Gulf of Riga from the Baltic. **OESSEL** is about 50 miles long and 30 broad, with a surface diversified by forests, lakes and rivulets. The inhabitants are industrious but rude, and **Arensburg**, its capital, contains a population of 1,400. The other small islands are of a similar character. The **Oesthonians** give the group the general name of "**Sarri-ma**" or the island country. Their climate is much milder than that of the continent, and agriculture in a much more forward state. **ALAND** is the name of a large group of islands at the entrance of the Gulf of Bothnia. So many as 80 of them are said to be inhabited, and the largest contains 14,000 inhabitants. The Russian government has for many years been fortifying these islands, with the view of making them an impregnable naval station, and constantly maintain upon them a very strong garrison. The sea between the **Aland** islands and the coasts of Sweden and Finland is frequently passable on the ice in winter; but generally speaking the climate is not extreme, and good crops of barley are produced. The inhabitants are largely engaged in the fisheries, and export great numbers of fish, and of the eggs and feathers of the sea fowl, which breed among the islands. **ROTLINE** is an island of sand, near the eastern extremity of the Gulf of Finland, containing the fortress, naval arsenal and port of **Cronstadt**. There are also some small islands in the Black Sea. **TAMAN**, formed by the two branches of the river **Kouban**, lies on the eastern side of the straits of **Yenikaleh**. **ZMIEVOI**, called by the Turks **Oulan-Adassi**, or **Serpent's isle**, 24 miles from the mouth of the Danube, is about a mile and a half long, and principally composed of barren cliffs, which form a secure retreat for vast numbers of sea birds. The Greeks, Russians and Turks believe it to be infested with enormous serpents, which keep guard over boundless treasures, and devour every human being who has the rashness to land upon it. It is the ancient "**Leuké**," i. e. **White Island**, and was the reputed abode of the hero **Achilles** in his deified state.

The northern coast of Russia is indented with immense gulfs and bays; and its vast inland seas and lakes penetrate the land, forming many remarkable localities; and the straits connecting them with each other, and with the ocean, form so many grand military defences against the approach of an enemy, and also limitations to external commerce. The **BIELOE MORE**, or **White Sea**, is a large gulf in the Arctic Ocean, about 200 miles in length, but varying in breadth, the narrowest part being only 45 miles across. It is mostly covered with ice during four or five months of the year. In its north-western portion it is named the Gulf of **Kandalax**; and on its south-western side are the Bays of **Onega** and **Archangel**. The **TCHESKAIA GULF** is another inlet in the Arctic Ocean, separated from the White Sea by the **Shemo-Rhonskian** peninsula. The strait of **Waigatz**, still further east, is formed by the mainland and the island of **Waigatz**. The **GULFS OF FINLAND**, **BOTHNIA** and **RIGA**, are large inlets of the Baltic Sea, and form together nearly the whole western maritime border of Russia. The **BLACK SEA**, (**Tcheriago Moré** or **Cherno Moré**,) **SEA OF AZOV**, **KIMMERIAN BOSPHORUS**, or **STRAIT OF YENIKALEH** or **Kaffa**, are all in the south of Russia. Along the western shore of the sea of Azov, a narrow tongue of land, 70 miles in length, separates that sea from a stagnant gulf named the **PUTRID SEA**, (**Sivaché**

Moré and Guiloé Moré,) which nearly divides the peninsula of Crimea from the mainland of Taurida.

The rivers of Russia may be arranged into separate systems, corresponding in their courses with the three great slopes of the country. Those which flow into the Arctic Ocean are—the Paswig, the outlet of Lake Enara; the Kola; the Petchora, a large river which has its source in the Ourals; and the Onega, the Dvina and the Mezen, which flow into the White Sea. The DVINA is a large and important river, and forms at its mouth the harbor of Archangel. It is formed by the union of the Soukhona and Iog; and its principal affluents are the Vitcheгда and Keltma, and the Pinega on the right, and the Baga on the left. Those flowing into the basin of the Baltic and its several arms, are—the Tornea and Muonio, which form the boundary between Russia and Sweden; the Kunmene; and the Neva, a large river, the outlet of Lake Ladoga, which enters the Gulf of Finland at St. Petersburg. Its length from the lake to the sea is 46 miles, its mean width about 1,500 feet, and its depth in many places considerable, and in the main channel about 50 feet. It is frozen over for five months in the year. The Swir unites Lakes Onega and Ladoga. The Duna rises not far from the sources of the Volga, and flows into the gulf of Livonia below Riga. It is navigable up to Velige, in the eastern part of the government of Vitepsk. The Niemen rises in the government of Minsk and flows into the Curische-haf, below Memel, and the Vistula flows through Russian Poland, receiving in its course several considerable tributaries. The Black Sea receives the Don or Tanai, the Dnieper, the Dniester, the Pruth and Kouban; and the Oural and Volga empty their waters into the Caspian Sea.

Russia abounds in lakes. Lake Ladoga in the north-west is the largest in Europe, and Lake Onega the second in size. These, with Saima and many others, are situated between the Gulf of Finland and the White Sea. The other principal lakes are—the Bieloe Ozero, (White Lake,) and the Ilmen in the government of Novgorod; the Peïpous or Tchoude, between St. Petersburg and Livonia; Kubinsk, in Vologda; the Bolchoi-ilmen, formed by the Manytsh, an affluent of the Don; the Enara, in Lapland, &c. These and other lakes are the recipients and feeders of large rivers, which originate in marshy uplands, where the waters derived from the melting snow accumulate into vast reservoirs. The government of Olonetz alone is said to contain about 2,000 lakes; Finland is nearly as well supplied, and the government of Astrakan abounds with salt lakes and marshes.

The climate of Russia of course presents a variety proportionate with its extent. Its geographical position indicates extremes both of heat and cold, and certainly the winters are much more severe and the summer more warm than in other parts of Europe in the same latitudes. These general remarks, however, are inapplicable to some localities. In the south the winters are short and the summers long and powerful. The middle region, from 50° 57° has a rough and long continued winter, especially towards the east; and at Moscow, latitude 56°, the mean temperature of the year is only 40° Fahr., while that of the hottest month rises to 70°. In the northern regions, from 57°, the climate though milder than in Asia, is much more severe than in Western Europe. The winter is here long, and violent winds prevail for seven months. The autumn is foggy, and in the coldest months mercury freezes. The duration of winter at St. Petersburg extends from September to May. The seasons and weather, however, depend greatly on the course

of the winds and other collateral circumstances. On an average 230 days of the year are reckoned to belong to winter, and for 160 of these the waters are fast bound with ice. In the arctic region there is little more variety than one long winter night and one long summer day. The summer, however, is much overcast with vapors, which obscure and sometimes hide the sun; while on the contrary, the long night is generally relieved by clear moonlight and the brilliant corruscations of the aurora borealis.

The predominant geological formations are the tertiary and alluvial—the older formations being less frequent. Primitive and transition rocks, however, occur in the Ourals, Finland and some other places; and the secondary rocks frequently appear rising like small islands in the great plain, and among the formations of this class are coal, lime, gypsum, chalk and salt. The tertiary formations occupy vast tracts of low country. Throughout Poland, Podolia and Southern Russia there is a tertiary limestone, extensively deposited, which is almost peculiar to the country. It is covered with marly clay and sand, and contains fossil remains of unknown animals. The alluvial formations consist of an old and a new deposit; the former composed of a great stratum of marly clay and loam, interspersed with numerous blocks of granite and other primitive rocks. It covers vast tracts of Poland. The soil which it forms in the south of Poland is excellent, but towards the north it becomes gradually less productive, and more mixed with sand, gravel and large blocks. Vast numbers of these blocks occur in this plain, which are believed to have been transported from Finland by some great flood.

The great mineral riches of the empire are found in the Oural and Altai mountains; those in European Russia are few and unimportant. A tract, however, called the Central Mining District, extends from the Oka to near Kaluga, which is for the most part poor and sandy, but contains iron ore; and as the metal is manufactured in the places where it is found, several extensive iron works have been erected in this region. The works at Petrozavodsk, and near St. Petersburg, are the largest in Europe. Finland yields copper and tin, and coal is found in various places in small quantities. In Southern Poland are numerous beds of black bituminous coal, sometimes thirty feet thick, occurring in the secondary formations. In the tertiary districts deposits of brown coal are met with, which likewise yield amber. Salt mines are found in several districts, but the greatest quantity is procured from the lakes and marshes north of the Caspian Sea. The principal salt works are in the neighborhood of Solikamsk; and the gypsum grottoes of Koungour, in the government of Perm, are large and magnificent. In Poland there are large mines of rock-salt, which form part of that enormous layer of fossil salt which extends along the Carpathian mountains, and which is large enough to supply the whole world for an indefinite period. Copper sand is found throughout a large extent of country in the governments of Perm, Vialka and Ufa, completely skirting the south and west sides of the Ourals. The sand is of a dull red, or green color, and is worked for copper; it contains also fossil wood impregnated with the metal.

It is in the Asiatic territory of Russia, however, that the most abundant mines of copper are found, as well as those of gold, silver, platina and other metals.

The extent of Russia, both in latitude and longitude—involving every variety of climate, from the torrid to the frigid zones—from the burning desert, which the camel alone can traverse, to the region of snows, where the

reindeer is the only beast of burden—presents soils and products of every shade and complexion, and embraces animals and vegetables adapted to the peculiarities of the several intermediate regions. A broad belt of vegetable soil, in some places from three to five feet deep, extends through central and southern Russia from Volhynia to the Ourals. This land is so productive as not to require manure, and its fertility is proved by the large returns of grain which it yields, and the excellent breeds of cattle that are raised upon it. Considered generally, the territory between  $44^{\circ}$  and  $50^{\circ}$  is for the most part low and level, scantily wooded, partly very fruitful and partly barren, and here and there impregnated with salt. The mildest and most fertile region, however, is that succession of valleys along the southern coast of the Crimea, where the vine and garden fruits, of excellent quality, are produced in such abundance, as to form an article of commerce as far as Moscow. Proceeding eastward into the government of Astrakan, only that part of the soil is fertile which extends along the low banks of the Volga, the Oural and the Terek, in which tracts vegetables attain an enormous size. The soil is here impregnated with saline and bituminous substances. Higher up, the land on the Volga becomes sandy and unproductive. The soil of Little Russia and the Polish Ukraine, is partly sandy and not very productive, and partly very rich and fertile. A great part of Western Russia is also sandy, and is intersected by extensive marshes and bogs. Large tracts of it are likewise covered with forests, while no inconsiderable portion ranks amongst the most fertile in the empire. The middle region, from  $50^{\circ}$  to  $57^{\circ}$ , is the wealthiest and most densely peopled portion of Russia; and consists of wide, open, undulating plains, with only slight elevations to break the monotony. The northern region beyond  $57^{\circ}$  is, with the exception of the mountains of Finland and the declivities of the Ourals, a continuation of the same flat country, upon which forests, meadows, marshes and moors alternate. The poor starved soil ensures the husbandman a return only so far as  $60^{\circ}$ , beyond which only slow-growing wood succeeds, and beyond  $67^{\circ}$  only dry stunted shrubs.

The Russian forests are of enormous extent, and yield the most important products, supplying in profusion, timber, tar, pitch, potash and turpentine, which form a principal part of the commercial exports, and furnish fuel in a country nearly destitute of coal. Of the entire country two-tenths of the surface is occupied by forests, the same amount by uncultivated lands, waters and cities, three tenths by arable, and the remainder by meadow lands. Of the woodland one-half is covered with pines, firs and other coniferous trees. Oaks, beech, poplars and elms are chiefly found south of  $52^{\circ}$ , but the birch grows in more northern regions. These immense forests are a great blessing to so rigorous a climate, as they afford a plentiful fuel, and shelter from the cold piercing winds from the north. The provinces of the south are almost destitute of timber. The trees furnish timber of the finest and most durable quality for building and furniture; and the firs even supply torches which the peasantry use instead of candles. The brushwood, which covers a large portion of the finest country, consists almost entirely of the hazel, dwarf-birch, alder, willow and juniper; and in some places the wild bilberry and the cranberry—of the latter of which large quantities are exported. It is in these vast forests that the wild honey is obtained for which Russia is famous. The bees make their hives in the hollow trunks of aged or injured trees. The exportation of timber furnishes a considerable item of the national revenue, as well as of the private fortunes of those proprietors whose estates are within reach of water carriage, and is the principal source of labor to their peasants.



Russia is chiefly an agricultural country, and the land under cultivation is so extensive, and yields, in many parts, such abundant crops, that enough is produced, not only for home consumption, but considerable quantities are exported. The most common grains are rye and oats; but in southern Russia the best wheat, with millet and rice, are produced. Hemp and flax are also largely cultivated. While corn and cattle constitute the wealth of Central Russia, the south abounds in productions of a more precious and delicate kind. There the vine is indigenous, and its cultivation, especially in the Crimea, has been well attended to, but the wines produced are neither remarkable for their flavor nor quality. Vine cultivation extends over Astrakan, Kherson, Podolia, the country of the Don Cossacks, Taurida, and the Caucasus. The mulberry tree has received the same attention, and with more favorable results. Large plantations have been formed near all the large towns, and every encouragement has been held out by the government to the growers. Sugar-cane and indigo have also been introduced. There is besides, in Southern Russia, a great variety of fruits and vegetables; and in summer the country everywhere presents the most enchanting appearance, and is covered with a profusion of the finest flowers and aromatic herbs. Russia also produces hops, tobacco, and the ordinary garden vegetables of Europe. Spanish pepper is raised on the Volga; the poppy in Kharkoff; rhubarb grows wild in Taurida; rhapontick in the Ourals; and the polygonum-minus, which grows wild in the Ukraine, engenders worms that yield a beautiful crimson dye. Many plants useful in dying grow wild; and there are also a number useful in tanning.

The quadrupeds of Russia are numerous, and some of them appear to be peculiar to the country. Cattle of every kind are bred in vast numbers on the Steppes, and are increasing with the improvement of agriculture. Beeves are reared as far north as 64°, but are most abundant in Podolia and the Ukraine. Sheep are reared to a great extent, and the stock is said to number 70,000,000 fleeces. The Merino has been naturalized in Little Russia and the Baltic provinces. Besides supplying wool for the home manufactures, large quantities have lately been exported. Great attention is also paid to the breeding of horses, which thrive upon the Steppes. Shawl-wool goats have been introduced; and besides these there are camels in Taurida and Kherson; asses in Taurida; swine, buffaloes, &c. In the north the reindeer, so invaluable to the inhabitants of those sterile regions, is the principal beast of burden. The forests contain vast numbers of wild-bees, which yield abundance of honey and wax for exportation. There are also many wild animals, the skins and furs of which constitute important articles of trade in the northern parts of the empire; and abundance of others whose flesh is used for food. Birds are very numerous, and in great variety; fish abound in the seas, gulfs, lakes, and rivers, and the fisheries constitute an important branch of the national industry.

Russia, originally divided into a large number of primitive and original nations, and only of late years aggregated into an imperial whole, presents more diversity of races and languages than any other country, but they may all be reduced into the following essential stocks:—1. the "Slavonic," in which are comprised the Russians, the Poles, the Lithuanians, the Lettons and the Kures; 2. the "Tshoude" or Finnish stock, which comprises the Fins, the Carelians, Esthonians, Cheremisses, Votiaks, Lapons, Lives, Zyraïnes, Voguls, Permians, Mordva or Mordûins, and a part of the Teptiars. These tribes are found on the coasts of the Gulf of Finland, and throughout north-

ern Russia; 3. the "Turkish stock," which comprises the inhabitants of Kasan and Astrakan, the Tûrkomans of the Caucasus, the Nogais and other Tartars of the Crimea, the Baschkirs, the Chuvashes, the Metcherieques, a part of the Teptiares, &c., extending over a large portion of the south-eastern and southern provinces; 4. the "German and Dutch" stock, comprising the Germans of Riga, Revel, St. Petersburg, Mitau, &c., and numerous colonies in Saratov and Taurida; and 5. the "Gothic" stock, or the Swedes, a number of whom are centred among the population of Finland. Besides all these, there are many English, Scotch, Danes, and other foreigners throughout the country, but chiefly in the commercial towns; Jews, Armenians, Moldavians, Wallachians, Persians, Calmucs, Hindoos, Samoyedes, and Laplanders. Of these various races, the Great Russians or Moscovites are the most numerous, comprising nearly three-fifths of the population. They are found chiefly in Central Russia, round Moscow, where the country is densely peopled, and where their numbers are rapidly increasing.

There are no certain data for ascertaining the amount of the population, but it may be set down at about 65,000,000, of which 54,500,000 are in European Russia, exclusive of the Caucasus. Of this number 35,000,000 may represent the Moscovites; 6,000,000 the Little Russians, Rusniaks, and Cossacks; 6,000,000 the Poles; 1,000,000 the Servians, Bulgarians, &c.; 1,200,000 the Lithuanians; 500,000 the Lettons; 300,000 the Kures, making a total of the Slavonic race of 50,000,000. The Fins and their congeners number about 3,000,000; the Germans 500,000, and the Turks 1,000,000. The proportion of males to females is as 28 to 30.

The increase of population in Russia is equal to that of any other portion of Europe. The ratio of deaths to the population is one in 44, while the proportion of births is one in 25, and on an average of thirty years 1804-33; the relative proportions of births to deaths were 45 to 30. Instances of longevity are remarkable. In 1821, when the deaths were reckoned at 945,088, of these 221 were above 105 years of age; 120 above 110; 78 above 115; 49 above 120; 16 above 125; 5 above 130; one 145; one 150, and one 155. From this it is apparent, that out of every 200 of the population one person attains to more than the patriarchal age of 105, a fact which is exhibited in no other portion of the world.

The settled population of Russia is divided into six great classes, namely, nobles, clergy, citizens, peasants, serfs, and slaves. The nobles, though distinguished by different titles, are all placed upon an equality. They have no political privileges whatever, and, though hereditary, have no rank but what the emperor confers; their persons and lands, however, are free from taxation, from forced military service, and from bodily penalties. But these exemptions are more apparent than real; for, though their lands and persons are not taxable, yet a capitation tax may be imposed on their slaves, who form the most valuable part of their possessions; and they are bound to furnish from their estates a certain number of recruits in proportion to the demands of the service. There are fourteen classes of nobility; most of the public employments are filled with nobles; and none is eligible who does not belong to one of the fourteen classes of rank into which the officers of the civil and military service and the clergy are arranged. The clergy are exempt from taxation and corporal punishment; privileges which are extended to their eldest sons, who are liable, however, to military service. Every inhabitant of a town, who is neither noble nor the property of another, is a citizen; and citizens are divided into four classes, styled notables, and members of the three guilds. The next class is that of peasants, or free inhabitants of

the country, distinguished into six classes—*first*, the old proprietors who cultivate their own lands, but have not the right of possessing slaves; *second*, the Tartars, Baschkirs, and other races in the south-east, who are all proprietors of the lands they cultivate; *third*, the peasants of Finland, who are all now either proprietors or free-renters; *fourth*, colonists, of foreign origin; *fifth*, the inhabitants of the military colonies in the southern provinces; and *sixth*, the free cultivators, who enjoy immunity from taxes on condition of keeping post-horses for the public service, which they furnish at a charge regulated by government. Below the peasants are the serfs\* who are chiefly peasants on the crown land, or in the province of Livonia. The crown peasants amount to about twelve millions, some of whom labor in the fields, and others in the mines and manufactories. They may rise to the rank of citizens, and acquire property; they enjoy the protection of the laws, and, under some restrictions, may quit their residences for a limited time to obtain employment elsewhere; but they are liable to be hired for the service of the mines, or to be sold. The peasants of Livonia, amounting to about 560,000, were slaves until the year 1804, when they first obtained the rights of serfs. They are still subject to some peculiar claims, which, however, are fixed, and they cannot be removed from the soil without their own consent. The last and most numerous class is that of slaves, whose number is about 23,000,000. They are in law considered as chattels, not as persons; are attached to the soil, and incapable of acquiring property in land; may be bought, sold, or exchanged, with little more ceremony than cattle; and have no other protection against their master than a regard for his own interests in their welfare. They belong to the nobles, or to such civil or military officers as have acquired the right of possessing slaves. They are divided into agricultural, mining, manufacturing, or domestic slaves, and the only chance they have of improving their condition is their being drawn to serve in the army. A Russian proprietor reckons the value of his property, not by its annual income, but by the number of male slaves upon it; but the relation in which the agricultural serf or slave practically stands to his master, is in most respects that of a small tenant; the principal difference being, that he cannot change his employment or move from home, without his master's leave, which is sometimes obtained for a certain annual sum, called obrok, in lieu of service. As a general rule, he has a house and a portion of land, for which he pays rent in labor instead of money; working three days a-week for his master, and having the other three at his own disposal. The slaves are grossly ignorant, undoubting fatalists, and habitually careless and improvident; yet they are contented and happy, and bear about them no signs of oppression; their desires are few and easily satisfied; their fare is coarse and poor, but they seldom suffer from cold or hunger, and they are naturally gay, good humored, and light-hearted. They cannot legally be sold or transferred to another master, except with the whole of their family. The station of domestic servants is much worse than that of the agriculturists. As the riches of the Russian noble consist in the labor of his peasants, it is his study to turn that to good account; the law, besides, requires him to maintain them, and, if they are found begging, he is liable in a fine. He is therefore obliged to keep always a certain number of people, whether they are useful to him or not;

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\* These two classes are usually confounded under the common name of *serfs*; but, after all, the principal distinction between them is, that the former class belong to the crown, while the latter are the property of subjects.

and as every kind of out-door labor is at a stand during the winter, he naturally turns to the establishment of some sort of manufactory as a means of employing them, and as a source of profit to himself. And not only are the nobles manufacturers, but they carry on the business in every branch; and their privileges give them great advantages over the other classes who are not allowed to possess slaves. No people in Europe are so plainly or coarsely fed. Their daily fare consists of pickled cucumbers, cabbages, and mushrooms, with a piece of black bread. Fish and butcher-meat are seldom tasted by the poor.

All the civil schools in the empire are placed under the minister of public instruction, who is represented in the circuits by sub-delegates, called curators. Public education is thus subjected to the direct control of government. But, besides the minister of public instruction, each separate branch of the administration superintends the schools connected with his own department. The schools may thus be arranged in four classes:—1. Schools which depend upon the minister of public instruction; 2. Military schools; 3. Ecclesiastical schools; 4. Special and various other schools. The first class is subdivided into—1. Parish schools, intended for the lower orders; 2. District schools, which have three classes, intended for the children of shopkeepers, and are restricted in their course of instruction to the catechism, writing, drawing, the rudiments of grammar, arithmetic, geometry, geography, and history; 3. Gymnasias, which are distributed by government, divided each into seven classes, and authorised to embrace higher studies, but accessible only to the children of the nobility; and, 4. Universities, which consist each of three faculties: philosophy, jurisprudence, and medicine, of which the courses last five years. The University of Dorpat has also a faculty of theology. The other universities are those of St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kharkoff, Kasan, White Russia, and Kief. As a part of the general system, the Russian language has been substituted for the Polish in all the schools of Poland. Private schools are likewise placed under the inspection of the local authorities, and can make use of no books but those appointed by government. The establishment of new private schools is prohibited at Moscow and St. Petersburg, and is allowed in other places only to such foreigners as shall have resided five years in Russia, and have, by naturalization, become Russian subjects. No father has the power of selecting the instructors of his children at his own pleasure; he must take them from among the persons licensed by government, or furnished with an authority which gives them the character of public functionaries. Education in any foreign country is positively prohibited to all under 18 years of age, and even after that age, it is only the emperor himself who can grant the necessary permission.

The military schools are those which chiefly engage the solicitude of the government; and, accordingly, they increase daily, and absorb the greater part of the funds allotted to national education. Nevertheless, there is no army so poor as the Russian in able officers; a circumstance which can be ascribed only to the bad organization of the schools, which are calculated less to diffuse knowledge than to supply the government with men less unmanageable, and more extensively and more variedly effective. These schools are divided into three classes:—1. Those under the direction of the grand-duke, which are dispersed over the empire under the titles of corps of pages, corps of cadets, &c.; 2. Those under the management of the Admiralty, designated corps of navy cadets, battalion of pilots, and of

instruction for workmen, are to be found only at St. Petersburg, Cronstadt, Sebastopol, and Nikolaef; and 3. Schools dependent upon the ministry of war, which are especially appropriated to the children of soldiers, divided into brigades of cantonments, and situated in the military colonies.

The ecclesiastical schools, designed chiefly for the education of the clergy, are divided into three circuits, those of St. Petersburg, Moscow, and Kief. Each circuit is composed of superior schools or academies, of intermediate schools or seminaries, and of lower schools in the smaller districts and parishes. They are under the superintendence of the Holy Synod.

The special and various schools are superintended by different ministers, or are committed to the special inspection of members of the Imperial family.

Besides the institutions occupied directly in the education of youth, Russia has also academies of sciences, learned societies, public libraries, and museums. The Academy of Sciences in St. Petersburg, founded in 1727, has acquired considerable celebrity; but, from its origin to the present day, it has been composed almost entirely of foreigners; scarcely one Russian name can be discovered among ten. Of the libraries, that of St. Petersburg contains 413,000 volumes; the library of the Hermitage, 100,000; the library of the Academy of Science, 90,000; and of the Universities of Dorpat, 60,473; Moscow, 50,712; Kief, 44,474; Kasan, 29,838; Kharkoff, 31,435; and St. Petersburg, 21,854. Among the museums, the Asiatic Museum of St. Petersburg is nearly unique in Europe, for the rarity and value of its collections. The museum of medals is likewise very interesting. In the whole empire 67 newspapers or periodical works are published. The press is under a strict censorship, which, in university towns, is entrusted to committees, and everywhere else to censors especially appointed. The censorship of works relating to religion rests with the ecclesiastical bodies. Every book hostile to the creed of the Greek Church, to monarchical autocratic authority, to decency, to morality, to private honor, is prohibited; and the first duty of the censors is "to consider what is the object which the author has proposed to himself in writing his work."

The orthodox Greek church is the dominant religion of the empire; but all other religions are not only tolerated, but even freely professed, difference of creed being no obstacle to the attainment of public employments. The Russians, the Cossacks, Moldavians, Wallachians, and numerous proselytes among the Permians, Zyranians, Voguls, Mordva, Samoyedes, Laps, and others, belong to the dominant church, which numbers about 45,000,000 or members. There are, however, some dissenters from its creed, named Raskolniks, &c., to the number of about 350,000. The Poles, Rusniaks, and Lithuanians, are Roman Catholics, or United Greeks; and the total numbers of that creed are about 3,500,000. The Fins, Lettons, Kures, Esthonians, Swedes, and Swedish Laps, and most of the German settlers, are Lutherans. Calvinism reckons but a small number of Poles and Germans. Islamism is professed by almost the whole of the numerous population of the Turkish or Tartar race, and the Arabs. The Jews, of course, follow the law of Moses. The Calmucks are worshippers of the Lama; and many of the Samoyedes, and other nomadic races, are idolaters or fetishists.

All power emanates from the Czar. The title of *Samoderjetz* (autocrator,) which the czar assumes, indicates the nature of his authority, which he is presumed to derive only from God. He is the central point of the administration. His authority is delegated to the great boards or colleges of the empire, which preside over the central administration and to the governors-

general, and other local functionaries. The three great boards of administration are, the council of the empire, the directing senate, and the holy synod. The first is divided into four departments, those of legislation, of war, of civil and religious affairs, and of finances. The ministers and a secretary of the empire form part of this board, which has the charge of all important affairs, with the exception of those relating to foreign policy. The directing senate is considered as the highest council of state. The czar himself is its president, and he names the senators, whose number is indefinite. This senate superintends the execution of the laws, and the receipt and expenditure of the public money, promulgates the laws and edicts authorised by the czar, appoints to public employments, and judges as the last resort in all legal causes. The holy synod is the senate in which is vested the supreme authority of the Græco-Russian church, and is composed of a certain number of prelates, named by the emperor, who is himself the sole head of the church, and presents to all ecclesiastical offices. The executive power is confided to ministers and secretaries of state, who form a fourth board, named the Committee of Ministers, but which is subordinate to the three great bodies already mentioned. Russia is a monarchy, absolute and hereditary, but the various parts of the empire present considerable differences in their administration, and some of them are governed according to the ancient privileges, which they have preserved, or to the constitution granted to them at the period of their union with the empire. Thus the Cossacks of the Don, and of the Black Sea, form military republics, under a first magistrate, named their *hetman*, who forms the organ of communication with the emperor; but, by various gradual changes, their privileges have been at last almost annihilated, and their territories reduced to the condition of ordinary provinces. Finland also forms a grand-duchy, with a constitution entirely different from that of the other parts of the empire. Livonia, Esthonia, and Courland, also enjoy considerable privileges; but still these privileges are held at the will of a despot, who may abrogate them whenever he pleases. Poland now forms an integral part of the empire; though it has a separate administration and particular laws, which cannot be all at once superseded by those of Russia.

The revenues of the empire arises chiefly from a capitation tax of two roubles on each peasant, and five on each burgher; a tax of  $1\frac{3}{4}$  per cent. on the capital of merchants; rents of the crown-lands of peasants, customs, stamps, patents, &c.; the monopoly of spirituous liquors and salt; mines; purchase of exemption from military services; fines on smugglers and other delinquents; the crown fisheries, mills, manufactures, baths; the profits of the mints, and the post-office; and the tribute in furs paid by the nomadic races. The total income for 1846 amounted to about £14,200,000 sterling; allowance, however, must be made for large sums never carried to the general account, but, either appropriated to local purposes, or paid in kind by various sections of the population. In some districts, also, the capitation tax is commuted for labor or military service. To the sum above stated may also be added the produce of the gold and platina mines. The imperial debt amounts to 933,871,673 paper roubles, or £40,356,885 sterling. There is little gold in circulation; the only silver coin is the rouble (75 cents,) and its aliquot parts of halves, quarters, tenths, and twentieths. There is a large copper circulation of kopecks, one hundred of which are equal to a paper rouble (\$2.42;) indeed, the only true metallic currency may be said to be the copper.

The ordinary establishment of the army consists of—1. Guards, forming 8 regiments of infantry, 8 of cavalry, 3 squadrons of Cossacks and Tartars, artillery and artificers—27,200; 2. Infantry of the line in the field, 127 regiments; in garrison, 36 battalions—381,800; 3. Regular Cavalry, 68 regiments, with 38 regiments of Cossacks, 87,000; and Irregular Cavalry, 51,000—together, 138,000; 4. Artillery, 44,300; 5. Extra corps, 27,000; 6. Officers of various ranks, 20,000—total, 640,300. To these must be added the reserve in the military colonies, 80,000, and Polish troops, 10,000—making a grand total of 730,300 men, with 90,048 horses belonging to the regular cavalry, 15,732 to the artillery, and 38,586 to the irregular troops. The army is distributed into eight grand divisions, namely:—1. The guards; 2. The army of the south; 3. The army of the west; 4. The army of Lithuania and Poland; 5. The corps of the Caucasus; 6. The Finland corps; 7. The regiments of the military colonies; and 8. The army of reserve. The expense of this vast force is comparatively small; the articles for their equipment, provisioning, and arming, being of the cheapest and coarsest kind, and the pay of both officers and men being very low. The number of the army is kept up by conscription. When new levies are wanted, orders are issued to the head men of villages, each of which is required to furnish a certain number, according to the amount of its population. The Russian soldier is docile, submissive, and brave; like all slaves, he is pliant, subservient, and cunning; and, like all natives of the north, he is hardy, patient, and enduring.

The Russian navy may be said to be the creation of the present Czar Nicholas. A navy, however, has existed since the times of Peter the Great. Within the last fifteen or twenty years Nicholas has established two large fleets in the Gulf of Finland and the Black Sea, and another in the Caspian Sea. He spares neither cost nor trouble, on this, his favorite object. Already he has a navy of upwards of 200 vessels, of all kinds, carrying more than 7,000 guns, and 70,000 men. The latest accounts present the following statistics of the Baltic and Black Sea fleets, which are presumed to be nearly exact:

	IN THE BALTIC SEA.			IN THE BLACK SEA.		
	<i>Vessels.</i>	<i>Guns.</i>	<i>Men.</i>	<i>Vessels.</i>	<i>Guns.</i>	<i>Men.</i>
Ships of the Line.....	30.....	2,400.....	".....	17.....	1,360.....	".....
Frigates.....	20.....	840.....	".....	10.....	510.....	".....
Sloops, brigs, and gun-boats.....	40.....	320.....	".....	30.....	326.....	".....
Steamers.....	26.....	104.....	".....	6.....	36.....	".....
	116	3,664	35,000	63	2,232	24,000
	63	2,232	24,000			
Total.....	179	5,896	59,000			

We have no account of the naval force in the Caspian, nor can we exhibit any approximate estimate of its strength. The importance of the station, however, would lead us to conjecture, that a man like the present emperor would not neglect to establish it on an efficient basis. Perhaps the aggregate above stated will cover the whole navy.

The greatest drawback to the efficiency of the Russian navy, is the fact that the ships are all manned by landsmen, who have no naval experience beyond what they derive from a short summer cruize in their narrow seas, or from harbor practice; and owing to the gross corruption that pervades every department of the body politic in Russia, the vessels are so insufficiently built as to be fit for service only a very few years, and some of them even, it is alleged, are almost useless before they are fitted out for their first

voyage—every part of the material being supplied of the worst quality, at the highest prices. To every ship of the line there is assigned a regiment of 1,100 men, who suffice not only for the larger ship, but also for the smaller vessels attached to it. The officers are supplied from the two Cadet Colleges, and sent to sea in the fleet every summer.

The agriculture of Russia was, till recently, of the rudest kind; but within the last few years considerable progress has been made in improving it. The annual production of grain, on an average of five years, has been calculated to amount to 134,818,920 English quarters, of which three-ninths were required for seed, leaving nearly ninety millions of quarters for consumption and exportation. For the encouragement of agriculture several societies have been established. Formerly Russia imported only manufactured goods, but she now imports large quantities of raw materials for the use of her manufactures, and strictly prohibits the importation of everything that can compete with them. The distillation of corn brandy, or whiskey, is still the most extensive and lucrative branch of industry, and produces to the government annually an excise-duty of ninety millions of roubles; the use of it is universal among the peasantry; who also consume to a great extent a kind of beer called braga. It is but of late that the Russians have applied themselves to the working of mines, but considerable quantities of metal are now produced. During the ten years, 1834-'44, the average quantity of gold produced from the Oural mines, and coined, amounted to 40,687 lbs. and of platina, 1,557 lbs.; but in 1836, the gold mines did not yield more than 4,580 lbs.; and those of platina only 174 lbs. The quantity of gold, however, obtained in the same year, from private mines, was 4,860 lbs., and of platina 4,248 lbs. The silver mines yield annually about 43,200 lbs., besides 1,440,000 lbs. of lead. The aggregate amount of copper from the government and private mines is 7,596,000 lbs. The principal iron mines are situated in Finland. The smelting of the ore is performed by eight different furnaces; and nearly the whole of the iron produced is distributed among the forges in different parts of the country. Finland likewise produces copper. Iron of the best quality is also found at Tula, which is a great seat of the iron manufactures of Russia. The salt lakes on the Steppes produce immense quantities of salt, to the amount, it is said, of 324,580 tons annually. Alum is produced to the yearly amount of 576,000 lbs.

The fisheries of Russia are not the least important branch of industry. A prodigious quantity of fish is supplied by the lakes and rivers; and of these the Volga and the Oka are particularly productive. The principal kinds of fish are sturgeon, bieluga, and salmon, besides carp, pike, and trout. The Black Sea likewise produces lampreys and mackerel; and a kind of herring is found both there and in the Sea of Azov. Caviare, the consumption of which is very great in Russia, is made from the roes of the sterlet, a variety of the sturgeon, and from those of the bieluga. A single sterlet yields from ten to thirty pounds weight, and from a single bieluga, there may be taken sometimes as much as 120 lbs. The best caviare is prepared by the Cossacks of the Oural. The nett annual value of the Russian fisheries amounts to more than ten millions of roubles. The fisheries of the Caspian and its tributary rivers, are by far the most important. They generally belong to the villages and cities in the Government of Astrakhan, but pay a yearly impost to government. The most extensive fishery, that of the Iemba, extending along the shores of the Caspian, from the mouth of the Oural to the gulf named Mertvoi-Kultuk, a distance of 345 miles, has



been free since 1803. At the mouth of the Terek there is another fishery, deriving its name from the island of Tchetchen, just opposite, on which the fishermen reside, and salt and smoke the fish. The Russians even are allowed to monopolize the fishery at the mouths of the rivers of Mazenderan. The principal objects of their attention are four species of the sturgeon, namely: the common sturgeon (*accipenser sturio*), the sevriouga (*accipenser stellatus*), the bieluga (*accipenser huso*), and the sterlet (*accipenser ruthenus*.) The mode in which the fish are taken is extremely rude and inartificial; and when taken they are placed on rafts, where they are gutted, and the roes, the back-bone, and the sounds or swimming bladders carefully separated. The fish themselves are then carried to huts, where they are salted; the roes are placed in a reservoir, to separate the fatty matter, after which, being pickled and barrelled, they constitute caviare. Sturgeon being a cartilaginous fish, have scarcely any earthy matter in their bones, which are in fact rather a highly elastic flexible gristle; their spines, therefore, being rich in galatine, are, together with the ligaments and capsules, saved, and constitute what is termed fish cartilage. Lastly, the sounds are dried in the sun and become isinglass. Seals are also found in the Caspian, and from 60,000 to 100,000 are taken annually, for the sake of their skins and blubber. The fisheries take place every year in the following order—first, the spring fishery, at the breaking up of the ice, when the greatest quantity of caviare is made; second, the summer fishery, when, from the lowness of the rivers, the fish are returning to the sea; third, the autumn fishery, from September to November, when the sturgeon, of all the species, are ascending the rivers, and seeking deep pools in which to spend the winter. Many of them, however, still remain behind, so that they are fished for in winter also, by nets sunk through holes in the ice. During this season the fishermen proceed several versts from shore on the ice; and it frequently happens that during their fishing an impetuous wind suddenly blows off shore, and drives the ice into the deep sea, where they are inevitably lost, unless the wind change and drive them back again to land.

The commerce of Russia is very considerable, and internal traffic is annually increasing. Nineteen fairs have been established in the principal towns, and thirteen in the smaller ones. A great number of bazaars have likewise been erected. The great centre of the inland trade is at Nishnei-Novgorod, the annual fair at which place is perhaps the largest in the world, and is attended by traders from all parts of European and Asiatic Russia, from Khiva, Bokhara, and Persia, who bring with them the produce of their own country, and carry home in exchange the productions of Western Europe and America. The fair lasts during August and September, and is generally visited by about 150,000 strangers. The annual value of the goods actually sold, in 1836, amounted to 117,743,300 roubles. The value of merchandize sold at all the fairs in 1836, amounted to £10,500,000. sterling. With respect to the maritime commerce of Russia, the value of the merchandize imported in 1835 amounted to £8,563,461, and exported, to £8,550,459. The imports consisted of coffee, spices, wines and liquors, fish, salt, tobacco, fruit, raw cotton, cotton twist, indigo, cochineal, madder, logwood, and other dyewoods, drugs, olive-oil, hardware, lead, raw sugar, silk, cotton, silk and worsted goods, cloths, and precious stones; but the importation of every sort of manufactured or other produce that can compete with the manufactures or natural produce of Russia, is expressly prohibited. The exports consisted of wheat, rye, barley, oats, wax, raw hides, tanned leather, flax, hemp, timber, potash, hemp oil, linseed oil, copper, iron, tallow, linseed, wool, bristles, cordage, sail-cloth, ravens, ducks, flems, cattle, furs,

hair, skins, &c. The largest articles of export were tallow, hemp, flax, and linseed. The principal seats of the maritime commerce are—St. Petersburg, Cronstadt, Riga, and Revel, on the Baltic Sea; Archangel and Onega, on the White Sea; Odessa, on the Black Sea. St. Petersburg alone engrosses about one-half of the whole foreign commerce of the empire.

The roads throughout Russia are, in general, very bad; in some places they are formed with trunks of trees laid across, and in others they are mere tracts; but of late some good roads have been formed, and particularly the great road from St. Petersburg to Moscow is said to be, without exception, the finest in the world. It has been macadamized throughout, and lined with trees; and at the end of every seven or eight versts there is a station for a corporal and a party of soldiers, whose duty it is to keep it in repair. —(*Bremner.*) A magnificent road likewise leads from the capital to Czarskocelo, with marble pyramids to mark the distance in versts, and lighted by nearly 3,000 lanterns. Railroads have also been formed between St. Petersburg and Czarskocelo; and between St. Petersburg and Moscow, with branches to Odessa and other places. But one of the most striking features of the country is the great extent of both natural and artificial communication by water. All the great rivers, lakes, and seas, have been connected by canals; so that there is uninterrupted communication from the Baltic to the Black Sea, the White Sea, and the Caspian.

Russia in Europe is divided into 47 eparchies or governments, exclusive of the territory of the Don Cossacks, which forms a sort of military republic; the Grand Duchy of Finland, which has a separate administration; and the kingdom of Poland. The Russian government makes no distinction between Europe and Asia, so that some of the governments are in both. Finland is divided into seven governments, and Poland into eight palatinates. The other governments are subdivided into circles. The following table contains the names of the governments, their area and population.

<i>Governments.</i>	<i>Area in sq. miles.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Population to sq. mile.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
<b>I. BALTIC PROVINCES.</b>					
St. Petersburg.....	15,037	509,004	—	St. Petersburg..	480,000
Esthonia.....	6,694	230,612	—	Revel.....	15,000
Livonia.....	17,653	740,089	—	Riga.....	50,000
Kurland or Courland.....	9,094	503,010	—	Mittau.....	14,000
Finland.....	136,127	1,372,122	—	Helsingfors.....	11,000
Total.....	184,655	3,404,837	18.5		
<b>II. GREAT RUSSIA.</b>					
Moscow.....	11,688	1,240,283	—	Moscow.....	400,000
Smolensk.....	20,272	1,031,466	—	Smolensk.....	12,000
Pskov or Pleskow.....	22,206	693,727	—	Pskov.....	10,000
Tver.....	21,718	1,297,947	—	Tver.....	24,000
Novgorod.....	43,988	735,170	—	Novgorod-Veliki.....	9,000
Olonetz.....	50,022	236,070	—	Olonetz.....	3,000
Archangel.....	323,255	240,396	—	Archangel.....	20,000
Vologda.....	146,200	732,223	—	Vologda.....	14,000
Iaroslav.....	17,149	930,180	—	Jaroslav.....	34,000
Kostroma.....	30,557	972,102	—	Kostroma.....	12,000
Vladimir.....	17,658	1,127,471	—	Vladimir.....	4,000
Nishnei-Novgorod.....	18,657	1,076,363	—	Nishnei-Novgorod.....	20,000
Tambov.....	23,480	1,580,259	—	Tambov.....	20,000
Riazan.....	15,024	1,211,223	—	Riazan.....	10,000
Tula.....	11,241	1,074,687	—	Tula.....	40,000
Kaluga.....	11,496	917,537	—	Kaluga.....	28,000
Orel.....	16,044	1,342,912	—	Orel.....	32,000
Kursk.....	16,873	1,503,022	—	Kursk.....	35,000
Voroneje.....	28,773	1,492,223	—	Voroneje.....	22,000
Total.....	370,327	19,435,761	20.0		

<i>Governments</i>	<i>Area in sq. miles.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Population to sq. mile.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
<b>III. LITTLE RUSSIA.</b>					
Kief or Kiev .....	16,957	1,459,782	—	KIEF .....	60,000
Tchernigov .....	19,085	1,312,592	—	Tchernigov .....	15,000
Poltava .....	22,568	1,621,583	—	Poltava .....	12,000
Kharkov, (Slobodes of the Ukraine.....}	17,956	1,171,456	—	Kharkov .....	13,000
Total .....	76,566	5,565,413	71.4		
<b>IV. SOUTH OR NEW RUSSIA.</b>					
Iekaterinoslav.....	25,203	774,768	—	Iekaterinoslav...	8,000
Kherson.....	23,356	607,949	—	Kherson .....	12,000
Taurida .....	43,348	543,020	—	Simpherpol. ....	3,000
Bessarabia .....	16,873	503,666	—	Kichinev .....	30,000
Don Cossacks .....	108,120	527,472	—	Tcherkask .....	11,000
Total .....	216,900	2,956,875	13.6		
<b>V. WEST RUSSIA.</b>					
Vilna .....	24,693	1,315,780	—	Vilna .....	56,000
Grodno .....	12,112	761,880	—	Grodno .....	9,000
Vitepsk .....	16,533	702,226	—	Vitepsk .....	16,000
Mohilev .....	17,510	802,100	—	Mohilev .....	23,000
Minsk .....	41,183	955,714	—	Minsk .....	17,000
Volhynia .....	22,801	1,314,117	—	Jitomir .....	11,000
Podolia .....	12,240	1,548,155	—	Kamenezs.....	13,000
Bialystock .....	3,443	261,017	—	Bialystock .....	6,000
Total .....	150,515	7,660,989	52.3		
<b>VI. KINGDOM OF KASAN.</b>					
Kazan .....	23,460	1,309,432	—	Kasan .....	50,000
Viatka .....	53,061	1,504,097	—	Viatka .....	8,000
Perm .....	57,821	1,488,800	—	Perm .....	11,000
Simbirsk .....	24,246	1,198,576	—	Simbirsk .....	14,000
Penza .....	14,322	988,179	—	Penza .....	12,000
Total .....	172,910	6,489,084	37.7		
<b>VII. KINGDOM OF ASTRAKHAN.</b>					
Astrakhan.....	86,530	103,288	—	Astrakhan.....	42,000
Saratov .....	73,801	1,543,477	—	Saratov .....	36,000
Orenburg .....	138,829	1,595,843	—	Orenburg .....	14,000
Total .....	299,160	3,242,608	16.5		
<b>VIII. KINGDOM OF POLAND.</b>					
Cracow .....	4,492	489,000	—	Xia.ex.....	2,000
Sandomir .....	5,998	384,000	—	Sandomir .....	2,000
Kalisch .....	6,825	740,000	—	Kalisch .....	15,000
Lublin .....	6,742	484,000	—	Lublin .....	12,000
Plock .....	6,162	458,000	—	Plock .....	6,000
Masovia .....	8,948	770,000	—	WARSAW.....	150,000
Podlachia .....	4,845	350,000	—	Siedlek .....	3,000
Augustova .....	6,842	478,000	—	Augustova.....	1,000
Total .....	50,864	4,153,000	82.2		
Grand Total .....	2,021,887	52,943,847	24.9		

Our narrow limits render it impossible for us to notice in detail the numerous cities and towns whose names occur in the map of so large a country. We shall therefore confine ourselves to short notices of the more important places.

ST. PETERSBURG, the capital of the empire, is situated on the banks of the Neva, where it enters the eastern extremity of the Gulf of Finland. The

Neva, flowing in one great stream from the Lake of Ladoga, here divides into two branches, named Neva and Nevka; each of which again divides into two, named the Big and the Little Neva, and the Big and Little Nevka; and these, before reaching the sea, still further subdivide, forming a number of low, marshy islands; besides which, the Admiralty Quarter is intersected by several large canals, forming so many more subdivisions. The principal part of the city, named the Admiralty Quarter, is situated on the mainland, along the south side, or left bank of the Neva; another large portion occupies half of Vassilii Ostrof (Basil's Island,) between the Big and the Little Neva; a third portion, containing the Citadel and Old St. Petersburg, the original foundation of Peter the Great, occupies a large island between the Neva, the Little Neva, and the Nevka; and a fourth portion, the Viburg quarter, extends along the north bank of the Neva and Nevka. The communication between these is maintained in summer by means of three large floating bridges, and in winter by the solid frozen surface of the Neva. The bank of the river is lined with stupendous granite quays, and the principal public buildings and ornaments of the city are arranged along the Neva, mostly in the Admiralty Quarter. The streets are in general wide and very regular, running in straight lines, but intersecting each other at different angles, except in the Vassilii Ostrof, and some other places, where they cross at right angles, though not arranged in exact or equal squares. Most of the streets are from 60 to 120 feet wide; the length is various; there are six or eight about 6,000 feet long; two or three still longer; the principal street, named Nevski Prospekt, is 14,350 feet long; and the Great Perspective, in the Vassilii Ostrof, 10,220 feet. Many of the houses are built of brick, stuccoed or plastered; but most of them are built of wood. A few of the streets and some of the squares have been macadamized; most of them are paved with small stones; but footpaths, formed of granite flags, have been recently introduced in almost every street, and no new streets can be formed without them. The city is divided into twelve districts, four of which are in the Admiralty Quarter, and each of these is subdivided into sections, the names and numbers of which are marked in large letters at the corner of every street; the houses are also regularly numbered; and a complete drainage is effected by sewers, arched over with brick, and having a gentle inclination to the river.

The principal public buildings are:—The Admiralty, nearly in the centre of the city, on the left bank of the Neva, a very extensive and handsome building, surmounted in the middle by a richly-gilt spire, and enclosing a dock-yard between it and the river; the Imperial or Winter Palace, a large and imposing pile; the palaces called the Hermitage, the Marble Palace, the barracks of the guards Preobrajenskoi, and others, which form altogether an uninterrupted line of splendid edifices, upwards of a mile in length, and unequalled in any other city in Europe. Opposite this splendid range is the Citadel, with its low bastions of granite encircled by the Neva, and rendered conspicuous by the tall, slender, and richly-gilt spire of its church of St. Peter and St. Paul, which contains the mausoleum of the Imperial Family. Looking to the east from the citadel, the Neva is seen spreading into a wide expanse like a bay, on the distant shores of which several other handsome buildings are discerned, particularly the great naval and military hospitals; while to the westward, the eye rests upon the magnificent portico of the Exchange, between two colossal rostral columns, at the eastern point of Vassilii Ostrof; and beyond them, the palace and observatory of the Academy of Sciences. A colossal equestrian statue of

Peter the Great, upon a massive granite pedestal, erected by Catharine II.; the Senate-House, the War Office, and St. Isaak's Church, are all situated in the area to the west of the Admiralty. The church has been building for fifty years, and, when completed, it may challenge the world to produce its equal for external character and sumptuousness of material. It is of a square form, with an octostyle portico on each of its four faces; and is surmounted by a large dome in the centre, 340 Russian (nearly 400 English) feet high, and four smaller ones at the corners. The whole outside is built of marble, granite, and bronze; each of the columns consists of a single granite stone fifty-eight feet high, and the dome is to be gilt with ducat gold. Another fine church, that of Our Lady of Kasan, has recently been erected, nearly upon the model of St. Paul's, London, in the form of a cross, with a central dome; but having its principal entrance at the north end of the transept, which communicates with the street by a semicircular colonnade, in imitation of the piazza San Pietro, at Rome. The Taurida Palace, at the east side of the city; the palace of the Grand Duke Michael, a stately new building; the hotel of the Staff, in front of which is the granite monolith column, (12 feet in diameter, and 84 high,) erected to the memory of the Emperor Alexander; and the cottage of Peter the Great, in the citadel, may also be mentioned as worthy of notice.

St. Petersburg was founded by the Czar, Peter the Great, in 1703, for the purpose of securing a maritime communication between his empire and the rest of Europe; and the city now engrosses the half of the foreign commerce of Russia. It was dedicated by its founder to the Apostle St. Peter, from whom it takes its name. The soil on which it is founded may be said to be marshy, and most of the houses are built on piles. No inconvenience, however, seems to arise from this circumstance, with respect to health or comfort. The surrounding country is flat; the soil is sandy; vegetation is not very luxuriant, except on the smaller islands, and the surface does not present that beautiful variety of ground which forms the charm of the situation of some other cities. But, with all these disadvantages, industry and art have produced, in less than a century and a half, results which in other parts of Europe would have been the work of many successive centuries. The city occupies an area of more than 18 miles in circumference. The population, in 1838, amounted to 469,720; of which 333,669 were males, and only 136,051 females; a disproportion accounted for by the circumstance, that men brought or coming to the city in search of employment, generally leave their families in the interior. The number of Greek clergy was 1,867; nobles, 40,588; merchants, both native and foreign, 10,004; citizens of honor, 163; and of various professions, 23,888; citizens, mechanics of various professions, 95,714; military, 70,929; servants of the court, partly serfs and partly freedmen, and individuals privileged with passports of service, 67,001; peasants, in part belonging to the crown, and partly to individuals, 126,213. It contained 10 palaces; 8,661 buildings and tenements, of which 3,243 are of stone or brick, and 5,418 of wood. The town markets were supplied with 105,816 oxen, and 30,965 sheep. The military garrison consists of 60,000 men.

Twenty miles west of the city, on the shore of the Gulf of Finland, is situate the large imperial palace of *Peterhof*, a favorite residence of Peter the Great; 15 miles south is the splendid palace of *Czarskocelo*, the Versailles of Russia, round which has grown up, as if by magic, a large town of 10,000 inhabitants, with colleges and public buildings; and 15 miles

further to the south-west, is the palace of *Gatchina*, the favorite residence of the Emperor Paul; and a town of the same name, with a fine china-work and large hospitals. There are other palaces of less importance at *Paulovsky*, *Staelna*, *Tchesmé*, and *Oranienbaum*, (orange-trees;) the last of which is situate on the shore of the gulf, to the westward of Peterhof, and is noted, as its name implies, for its superb orangery.

KRONSTADT, or CRONSTADT, a strong fortress and naval arsenal, and the port of St. Petersburg, is situated at the east end of a large sandy island in the gulf, about 16 miles west from the mouth of the Neva. It is so fortified by every device which skill can suggest, that it is considered to be impregnable; is the station of the Russian Baltic fleet; and completely commands the passage to St. Petersburg, the intervening sea being so shallow that large vessels cannot approach the city. Population, between 30,000 and 40,000.

REVEL is a fortified town, with a fine harbor, and considerable trade. Population, 5,000. RIGA is a large, antique, fortified town, with old and bad houses, and exhibits no striking or remarkable feature. Its population is chiefly commercial, and exports great quantities of hemp, corn, and timber, brought from the interior by the Dvina, which forms its harbor. Population, 50,000. DORPAT is the seat of a celebrated university, founded in 1630, by Gustavus-Adolfus, king of Sweden. MITTAU is a literary town, possesses a celebrated gymnasium, a library, observatory, and museum of natural history; and is the seat of the Courlandish Society, which has published some learned memoirs. Population, 14,000.

HELSINGFORS is a flourishing commercial town, with a fine harbor on the Gulf of Finland, and is the seat of a university transferred from Abo. It has been recently much improved and fortified by the Russian government; and near it is the celebrated fortress *Sveaborg*, consisting of seven fortified islands, which defend a magnificent harbor and naval arsenal. The fortress is capable of lodging a garrison of 12,000 men; is so completely fortified as to be deemed impregnable, and is called by the Russians the Gibraltar of the Baltic. ABO, the ancient capital of Finland, was almost entirely destroyed by fire in 1825, and is very slowly recovering. TORNEA is a very small town, at the head of the Gulf of Bothnia; from a mountain in the neighborhood, the sun is seen all night at midsummer, and on that account, the place is visited by many travellers. VASA and ULEABORG are small, but well-built towns, with considerable trade, on the east coast of the Gulf of Bothnia. FREDERIKSHAMN and ROTSCHENALM, are two fortified places on the northern shore of the Gulf of Finland; the latter is the station of part of the Baltic fleet.

MOSCOW, (MOSKVA,) the metropolis of the empire, though not the seat of government, is a large city, regularly-built, on the banks of the Moskva, three hundred and ninety miles south-east of St. Petersburg, (55° 45' north latitude, and 37° 33' east longitude.) It was almost entirely destroyed by fire in 1812; but, since that time, it has not only been rebuilt, but greatly enlarged, improved, and embellished. In its general appearance it more resembles an Asiatic than an European city; it is chiefly built of wood, and palaces and huts stand mixed together in striking contrast. It is the head-quarters and winter resort of the old Russian nobles, who generally dislike the restraints and the modern fashions of the Court of St. Petersburg; it is also emphatically the city of churches, containing more than 600, many of which have five or six domes, besides steeples, spires, and crosses, gilded and joined together with golden chains. Its convents,

too, are almost innumerable, rivalling the churches in size and splendor. In the middle of the city stands the Kremlin, or citadel, on a height, the base of which is circled with white Tartar walls, and washed on one side by the river. It is nearly triangular in form, and two miles in circumference. Within, there are no regular streets; but it contains three open places or squares, and abundance of room for carriages and foot-passengers. It is crowded with palaces, churches, monasteries, arsenals, museums, and other public buildings, erected without any attempt at regularity or design, and exhibiting every variety of taste, and every order of architecture, Grecian, Gothic, Italian, Tartar, and Hindoo; rude, fanciful, grotesque, gorgeous, magnificent, and beautiful; overtopped by upwards of thirty gilt cupolas. The most splendid of the churches is the cathedral of the Assumption, founded in 1325, and rebuilt in 1472, loaded with gorgeous and extravagant ornaments; in this church the Emperors are invested with the ancient crown of the Czars. Above every other object in the Kremlin rises the tower of Ivan Veliki, (John the Great,) about 270 feet high, and containing thirty-three bells, the smallest of which weighs 7,000, and the largest more than 124,000 lbs.; and on festival days the whole are all tolled together. The great bell of Moscow, weighing 443,772 lbs., cast in the reign of the Empress Anne, and which lay for a century sunk in a dark pit, has been recently raised and set upon a pedestal. Though cracked and useless, it is, nevertheless, an object of great veneration with the Russians. Moscow possesses a great number of scientific and literary establishments, and is the centre of an immense inland commerce. The population in 1838 amounted to 348,562; of which 214,778 were males, and 152,784 females. MOJAISK and BORODINO, 60 miles west of Moscow, were the scene of a very obstinately contested and sanguinary battle, between the French and Russians, in 1812.

TVÉR, an archiepiscopal city, is situated on the right bank of the Volga, at the confluence of the Tvertza and the Tmaka. It was almost entirely rebuilt by Catharine II., and is most advantageously situated for carrying on an extensive trade. It has a magnificent imperial palace, a Gothic cathedral, a monument of Catharine II., several fine squares, straight streets, and superb quays along the Volga. It possesses an ecclesiastical seminary, with 11 professors, a gymnasium, and a college of nobles. NOVGOROD-VELIKI, (Big Novgorod, or Novgorod the Great,) three centuries ago covered an area of 42 miles in circumference, and had more than 400,000 inhabitants. Some parts of it are still in good condition, with wide and well-paved streets; but the larger portion has fallen to ruin, and its population has dwindled to little more than 7,000. It is situated about 130 miles from St. Petersburg, on a fine navigable river, the Volkhova, over which there is a new and handsome bridge. PETROZAVODSK, (Peter's Foundry,) is situated on the west side of the Lake of Onega, is noted for its large and important iron works, its cannon-foundry, and gunpowder manufactory.

ARCHANGEL, (or the City of St. Michael the Archangel,) situated on the northern bank of the Dvina, near its mouth, in the White Sea, is an archiepiscopal city, and was the only outlet for the productions of Russia before the founding of St. Petersburg. It still enjoys a great trade in exporting the productions of the northern provinces, but its harbor is shut up by the ice from September to July. The town is mostly built of wood, but its great market-place is built of stone. It has an ecclesiastical seminary, with nine professors; a gymnasium, and a school of navigation. Population, 20,000.

**VOLOGDA** is a flourishing manufacturing town, and the centre of the trade of the north of Russia with Europe and Siberia, an advantage which it owes to its position, midway between St. Petersburg, Archangel, Moscow, and Kasan, and to the canals and navigable rivers with which it is connected. It is the seat of a bishop, and one of the principal ecclesiastical seminaries, which has fourteen professors, and is attended by several hundred students. Population, 15,000. **IAROSLAV**, a well-built archiepiscopal city, with many elegant houses, situated on a plateau, at the confluence of the Kotorotsk with the Volga, is one of the principal manufacturing towns of Russia, and is particularly noted for table-linen, paper, and silk. It possesses a school of science, founded, in 1812, by Paul Gregoriwitch Demidov; a rich library, an ecclesiastical seminary, with 12 professors, and 1,200 students, and 43 or 44 churches. Population, 24,000.

**NISHNEI-NOVGOROD**, (Lower Novgorod,) an episcopal city, stands on a fine triangular height, at the confluence of the Volga and the Oka, in  $56^{\circ} 19' 40''$  north latitude, and  $61^{\circ} 40' 34''$  east longitude, and consists of two towns; one on the low bank of the Oka, and the other on the top of the high bank overhanging it; the highest point, overlooking the Volga, is occupied by the Kremlin, or citadel. The public buildings are very elegant, and, with the whole town, present an appearance of freshness and solidity. It has 26 churches, of great size and beauty; two monasteries, and a nunnery. Upon a low flat, on the northern bank of the Oka, exposed to inundation from both rivers, lies a scene of bustle and activity unparalleled in Europe; a vast town of shops, laid out in regular streets, with churches, hospitals, barracks, and theatres, built of the most substantial materials. This place is occupied every year, from the first of July to the first of September, old style, by more than a hundred thousand people, from all parts of Asia and Eastern Europe, to attend the fair of Makarief, which is held here, and the business of which is of such importance, that the governor of the province attends it, residing for the time in a large and handsome palace. The annual official value of goods sold here is stated at 125,000,000 roubles, or £5,000,000 sterling; but the real value is reckoned at double that sum; and, while it lasts, the fair is frequented by two or three hundred thousand people. Every article of commerce, from the heaviest and bulkiest to the smallest and lightest, raw produce as well as manufactured goods, is brought here for sale. The fair derives its name from St. Macarius, under whose protection it is held; and who also gives his name to the place where it was formerly held, a decayed town on the left bank of the Volga, 56 miles below N. Novgorod. The site was changed in 1817. Population, 18,000.

**TULA** is finely situated on the banks of the Oopa, 117 miles south of Moscow, the houses filling a wide hollow, and spreading gently back till they reach two ridges of considerable elevation, which are covered with mansions of imposing appearance. Under the protection of Peter the Great, it became a place of great importance; and his successors having continued to protect its artizans by every means in their power, it has risen to such a degree of importance, in some kinds of manufacture, as to be considered the Birmingham of the empire. It has been, however, almost ruined by two destructive fires, in the reign of the present emperor. The staple branch of industry is the manufacture of fire-arms. A great part of the iron and steel used is brought from Siberia; but iron of the best quality is also found in the neighborhood. The soil abounds with ore, and in some places it may be reached by the plough. The mines are conveniently situated, and



easily wrought; but the forests having been consumed, fuel has become so scarce, that the forges are wrought at a very considerable expense. It is, besides, so very disadvantageously situated for communication with the great marts of the empire, that the expense of carriage raises the price of its manufactures above most people's means.—(*Bremner.*) Population, 40,000. OREL is a flourishing town, where all the provisions necessary for the victualling of Moscow are collected from Little Russia, such as grain, tallow, cattle, pigs, leather, honey, wax, wool; besides the corn and hemp sent to St. Petersburg for the navy. BRIANSK has an extensive manufacture of arms, a cannon foundry, an arsenal, and magnificent forests of excellent timber for ship-building, which are under the superintendence of the admiralty.

KIEF, the ancient capital of the original Russia, is a large town on the right bank of the Dnieper, situated to the west of an amphitheatre of hills, which rise abruptly in the middle of an immense plain. For a long time it was the prey alternately of Poles, Lithuanians, and Tartars, until, in 1686, it was finally ceded by the Poles to Russia. For many centuries it has been regarded as the Jerusalem of the North, the sacred and holy city of the Russians; and its numerous convents and churches, which crown the summit, and hang on the sides of the hills, with their domes and spires, chains and crosses, richly gilt, give the whole city a golden splendour. In the monastery of Petcherskoi are preserved 110 dried bodies of martyrs, which are visited by crowds of pilgrims from all parts of Russia. Kief is the seat of a university, and of an annual fair, frequented by about 30,000 persons, and which was formerly held at Dubno. Population, 60,000. POLTAVA, or Pultava, is a small Episcopal city, chiefly noted for the great battle fought in its neighbourhood between the Czar, Peter the Great, and King Charles XII. of Sweden. The scene of action, now covered with rich corn fields, is a plain four miles south-west of the town, and is marked by an artificial hillock, rising not more than 30 feet from the ground, with a large white cross on the top, bearing this inscription: "Here are interred the Swedes who fell in the great day of Poltava." The town stands on a lofty height, visible 20 miles. Population, 8,000.

ODESSA is situated on the north-western coast of the Black Sea, overhanging a wide and beautiful bay. Its principal portion extends along the top of a long range of cliffs, commanding an extensive sea view. Immediately on the top of the cliff is an extensive public walk, planted with flowering shrubs and trees, and having the governor's house at one end, the exchange at the other, and a statue of the Duc de Richlieu in an open area in the centre. One side of this walk is formed by a line of splendid houses, the residences of the principal inhabitants; and behind it are rows of parallel streets, crossing each other at right angles. The houses in the best quarters are very lofty and handsome, generally built of a soft, light-coloured limestone, and roofed with sheets of iron or painted wood. The want of good building and paving-stone is much felt; but considerable quantities are imported from Greece, Malta, and other places as ballast. The streets, consequently, are not paved. In 1796, the Empress Catherine resolved to build a city here, and it soon became a great resort for foreign traders. In 1802 the Duc de Richlieu, the governor, laid out the plan of a city on a gigantic scale, which already bids fair to realize the expectations of its founder. The inhabitants consist chiefly of Polish Jews, Italians, Greeks, and Germans, with a few French and English. Grain constitutes the most important branch of trade, the quantity exported every year being seldom

less than a million of chetverts, (each 0.68 of an English bushel.) Wool is also fast rising into importance. The greater part of the carrying trade is performed in Austrian ships; next to which in order are those of Sardinia, Russia, England, Greece, Turkey, Sweden, France, &c. The road is spacious and good, but open from north-east to south-east, with a bottom of mud and gravel; and when the mitel (north-easterly wind) blows, the shipping suffers greatly; vessels often start their anchors, and twelve or fourteen wrecks have been seen lying together on the shore. The winter, though sometimes severe, is generally very open; the trade is seldom interrupted by the frost for more than six or eight weeks; but such is their dread of the mitel, that when it blows no one ventures out of doors. The thermometer rarely falls below 18° Fahrenheit. In summer, on the contrary, the heat is very intense, the thermometer often rising to 95°. The greatest annoyance during the warm weather proceeds from the clouds of dust which are raised by the slightest breath of air, even by the wheels of a carriage passing along the street. Odessa is a free port, but the limits of the privileged district are strictly guarded. It also contains a very important academic institution, the Richlieu Lyceum, which contains professors of Greek, Natural and Civic History, and the higher branches of science. Odessa is one of the cheapest towns in Europe to live in. Population, 60,000.

SIMPHEROPOL, the capital of the Crimea, is a considerable city, with fine squares, wide streets, elegant houses, and part of the city, named Ak-met chet (White Mosque or Church,) is a small town, with narrow unpaved streets, surrounded with old dilapidated walls. Population 2,000. БАХТЧЕСЕРАИ, or Bagtcheserai, (Garden Palace,) is a large Tartar city, containing the fine palace and mausoleum of the Khans of the Crimea, in a highly romantic situation. The whole trade of the town is in the hands of the Karaite Jews, who possess a stronghold of their own, named Jufeid Kaleh (Infidels or Rogues' Castle,) on a high rock, where they and their families live in security, and are governed by their own laws. SEBASTOPOL, near the south-western point of the peninsula, upon the south side of a fine bay, is a strongly fortified town, with a fine citadel, and a roadstead so capacious, and with such good anchoring ground, that the fleets of Europe might ride in it, secure from every storm; and such is the depth of water, that the largest ships may lie within a cable's length of the shore. There are, besides, five other small bays branching off in various directions, all equally commodious, and all lined with a series of capes naturally strong and easily defended. It is now the station of the Black Sea fleet, and no expense or labour is spared to make the place impregnable. The population, of 30,000, are mostly all naval or military. BALACLAVA (Bella chiave,) ten miles south-east of Sebastopol, is a small town, deriving its name from its fine harbor, which enters from the Black Sea by a narrow strait only 30 yards across, and then expands into a basin 1,200 or 1,400 feet wide, and 300 fathoms deep, where large vessels may ride in safety during the severest storms. EUPATORIA, or Kazlov, on the west coast, is a Tartar city, inhabited almost exclusively by Crim Tartars, with a lazaretto, custom-house, several fine mosques, and a Tartar college. The great mosque, built in 1152, is the finest building in the Crimea, and much admired for elegance, extent, and solidity. The bay being open and exposed, the maritime commerce of the city is very inconsiderable. About 17 versts from Eupatoria is the famous salt lake, with mud baths, which enjoys a high reputation, and attracts invalids from every part of the empire. KERTCH, on the Strait of Ienikaleh, is the most bustling seaport of the Crimea, and, from its situation, is remarkably well adapted

for a commercial station. It has regular streets and good houses. Near Sebastopol is the ancient CHERSONESUS, the site of the famous temple of the Tauric Artemis, where shipwrecked strangers were offered in sacrifice to the goddess; and MANGOUR KALEH, one of the most remarkable objects to be found in any country. This is a castle situated on a mountain inaccessiblely precipitous, perfectly insulated, and surmounted with extensive fortifications. The rock, moreover, has been cut into a variety of chambers, watch-towers, &c., affording a secure retreat for a garrison of several thousand men. It was the work of the ancient Greeks and the Genoese, but is now deserted. IENIKALEH (New Castle,) is a fortress which commands the entrance to the Sea of Azov.

The country of the Don Cossacks extends along the Don to the north-eastward of the sea of Azov, and seems to have been acquired by its present inhabitants, a branch of the Little Russians, in the 16th century. It is an immense plain, destitute of hills; some parts of it are fruitful; but, in general, the soil is barren, agriculture is neglected, and little progress has been made in the useful arts. The Cossacks used to enjoy a great degree of political liberty, under a democratic government, at the head of which is an Ataman or Hetman. They are liable in military service to the Czar, and are particularly useful as light horse, and in irregular warfare. The only town worth notice in their country is TCHERKASK, which is built upon piles in a marsh, and contains 3,000 houses, which the inhabitants are unwilling to leave for the new town of Novo-TCHERKASK, more recently built in a healthier situation.

VILNA, or WILNA, 430 miles S. W. by S. of St. Petersburg, and 200 E. of Koningsberg, is a large and neat town, at the confluence of the Vilia and the Vilenka, and surrounded by picturesque hills. It is the ancient capital of Lithuania, and was for many years the seat of a flourishing university, which has been recently reduced to two chairs, one of medicine and the other of theology, and stripped of its rich endowments, libraries, and museums. Its cathedral of St. Stanislaus is one of the finest churches in Poland, and occupies the site of the temple of Perkunas, the Jupiter of the Lithuanians. Population, 56,000. KAZAN, or KASAN, is a large, well-built city, the greater part being situated upon rising ground, not far from the Volga. It is the principal entrepôt of the trade of Siberia, and the seat of considerable manufactures. It is the see of an archbishop; possesses one of the four great ecclesiastical academies of the empire, with 16 professors, and about a thousand students; a university and several other literary and scientific establishments. Kazan was formerly the capital of an independent Turkish or Tartar kingdom, conquered by the Czars in the sixteenth century; and the Tartars still form a considerable, and not the least industrious part of its inhabitants. Population, 50,000.

ASTRAKHAN, formerly the capital of a Tartar kingdom, is built on an island in the Volga, by which it is accessible for vessels from the Caspian Sea. The houses are almost all built of wood, and the streets are irregular, dirty and unpaved; but its numerous churches, fine orchards and vineyards, its extensive suburbs, and its kremlin or citadel, give it a fine appearance at a little distance. It is the see of a Russian and of an Armenian archbishop, and contains a board of admiralty, which superintends all the shipyards and fisheries on the river and its shores. Favoured by its situation, which enables it to communicate with the richest and most fertile parts of the empire, and with the shores of the Caspian Sea, Astrakhan has become the entrepôt of the trade carried on by the Russians with Persia, Turkestan,

and India. The citizens are also distinguished for their industry; of which the manufacture of cotton stuffs, silk, morocco, chagrin, tallow, and dyeing, are the principal branches. It has an ecclesiastical seminary, a gymnasium, and a botanic garden. Population, 40,000.

ORENBURG is a fine, well fortified town, the entrepôt of the trade with Bokhara. It possesses an ecclesiastical seminary, with 8 professors, and a seminary for the army. TROITSK is a fortified town, which also shares in the trade with Bokhara. ZLATOUST is a large village, with iron forges and gold mines recently discovered. MIASK is a village, with copper mines and gold washings. ILETSKI is a small fortified town, with a rich mine of rock salt, considered to be the best in Russia. It contains, also, since 1817, a number of smiths, jewellers, watchmakers, and other artizans, who carry their work to great perfection. OURALSK, the capital of the Cossacks of the Oural, is a large town, chiefly dependent upon the produce of the fisheries.

#### POLAND.

The KINGDOM OF POLAND formerly included a very large territory, extending from the eastern frontier of Germany to the borders of Muscovy, about 700 miles, and from the shores of the Baltic to the Carpathian mountains and the river Dniester, on the borders of Turkey. The Polané, a Slavonic people (so called from their fertile plains) early acquired a certain degree of celebrity, and established the centre of their power, first at Kruswitz (A. D. 846,) then at Gnesen, and latterly at Cracow. Christianity was introduced among them by their King Mieczislaus I. in 965; but his son, Boleslaus the Great, deserves more properly to be considered the true founder of the Polish monarchy, the limits of which he extended from the Dnieper to the Elbe, and from the Baltic to the Danube and the Theiss. While all the other Slavonic nations were subjugated by Turks or Tartars, Magyars, Greeks or Germans, the Poles preserved their independence, and long stood forth as the advance guard of Europe against the Infidels. The kingdom was at last completely disorganised by its feudal aristocracy and elected king, that its neighbors took advantage of its weakness, produced by dissension and anarchy, to divide it among themselves. The first dismemberment took place in 1766, and the second in 1792, when the Polish territory was finally divided among the Empress of Russia, the Emperor of Germany, and the King of Prussia. During the wars of the French Revolution, various changes took place in the arrangement and boundaries of their respective divisions; but they were settled at last on their present footing in 1815; nearly two thirds of the kingdom being then confirmed to Russia.

Cracow, the ancient capital, was declared a free city, under the protection, or to speak correctly, under the domination of the three sovereigns; but in 1846 it was taken possession of by Austria, and annexed to that empire with the consent of the protecting powers. The Poles of the present day call themselves Polak, in the plural Polacy (Polatzy,) and their country Polska.

WARSAW (*Warszawa* of the Poles, *Warschau* of the Germans) is situated on the left bank of the Vistula, 170 miles S. E. by S. of Danzig, in the middle of a vast sandy plain. The city proper is ill built; but the suburbs are fine and spacious, with wide, straight, and well-paved streets. PRAGA, the largest suburb, is situated on the right bank of the river, across which there is a bridge of boats. The royal palace, Zamek Krolewski, is a vast building; and, besides it, there is a great number of other fine palaces and

public buildings; a cathedral, dedicated to St. John, and numerous other churches, with many scientific and literary establishments. In the immediate neighborhood of the city is the superb castle of Villanow, which belonged to the great king John Sobieski, and where he died in 1696. Population, 150,000. **KALISCH** is one of the finest cities in Poland. It has important cloth-works, a military school, a lyceum, with a valuable library and museum, and a Catholic bishop. **CZENSTOKHOWA**, near Kalisch, is a small town, with a sanctuary of the Virgin Mary, which is visited every year by a crowd of pilgrims. **LUBLIN** is a large episcopal city, with some fine buildings, and a considerable trade. **PULAWY**, near Lublin, was noted for the magnificent residence of the princes Czartoryski, who spent a great part of their revenues in rendering it one of the finest places in Europe; but it was sacked and burned in the last war.

The ancients had very little acquaintance with the vast countries included in the empire of Russia. The monarchy is usually regarded as having been founded by Rurik, about 862; his dominions, and those of his immediate successors, comprising Novgorod, Kief, and the surrounding country. In 980-1015, Vladimir introduced Christianity, and founded several cities and schools. But, from this period down to 1237, when the country was overrun by the Tartars, Russia, with few exceptions, was the theatre of civil war. In 1328 the seat of government was transferred to Moscow; and in 1481 the Tartars were finally expelled. In 1613, the house of Romanoff, whence his present majesty is descended, was raised to the throne; and from this period the empire acquired strength and consistency. Under Alexis Mikhailovitch, (1645-1676,) White Russia and Little Russia were conquered from the Poles, and the Cossacks of the Ukraine acknowledged the supremacy of the Czar; various internal improvements were effected, and the power of Russia began to be felt and feared by all her neighbors. At length, in 1606, Peter the Great ascended the throne, and the destinies of Russia and of the northern world were immediately changed. This prince, who has, probably, a better claim than any other that ever existed to the epithets of "great" and of "father of his country," gave to the arms of Russia a decided preponderance in the north of Europe; he also gave her a fleet; conquered large provinces on the Baltic; laid the foundations of the noble city which bears his name; and introduced among his people the arts, the literature, the customs, and, to some extent also, the laws and institutions of the more civilized European nations. The difficulties he had to encounter in his projects for remodelling and civilizing his dominions, were of the most formidable description; and could not have been overcome by any one possessed of less authority, or of a less stern decided character.

From this period Russia has progressively advanced in power and civilization. Under Catharine II., (1762-1796,) a princess of extraordinary talent, Russia acquired a vast accession of power, by her acquisitions in Poland and on the Black Sea, where she has now the same ascendancy as in the Baltic. The history of Russia, during the present century, is known to everybody. The attempt of Napoleon to dictate a peace to the Emperor Alexander, in the ancient capital of the Czars, led to the overthrow of his colossal power, and gave a vast accession of influence and consideration to Russia, which has been maintained and extended under the present emperor.

It would be idle to speculate upon the permanency of the present order of things in Russia. A great deal, in such an empire, depends on the per-

sonal character of the sovereign. The present occupier of the throne has every quality—good sense, undaunted courage, great decision, and the utmost vigilance and activity—required in the ruler of such a country. But should the government fall into less able and skilful hands, it is not improbable that Russia may become the theatre of revolution and change, for which, at present, she certainly is not fitted.

The progressive advance of Russia has been the theme of much silly declamation, about the grasping, insatiable ambition of the nation. No doubt her rulers have the same desire to extend her territories as those of France, England, or any other power; but certainly they are not, in this respect, at all peculiar. In point of fact, however, by far the greater part of the territorial acquisitions of Russia have consisted of mere deserts, or of countries occupied by roving barbarians, and are worth little or nothing. Her really valuable acquisitions have been confined to those on the side of Poland and the Black Sea. Her conquests in this direction have added materially to her power; and it is but fair to add, that they have also added materially to the well-being and civilization of the inhabitants.

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## ITALY.

ITALY, lying between  $36^{\circ}$  and  $47^{\circ}$  north latitude, and between  $5^{\circ}$  and  $19^{\circ}$  east longitude, consists of two distinct portions—the continental and the insular: the latter embracing of the three large islands of Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, with the smaller islands of Malta, Gozo, Comino, and others. The greatest length of the continental portion is 695 miles, but the breadth varies from 275 to less than 20 miles. The superficial area of the peninsula and islands together, is estimated at about 125,000 square miles. Italy is bounded on the north by Switzerland, the Tyrol, Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola; on the west and south-west by France and the Mediterranean Sea; on the east and north-east by the Adriatic or Gulf of Venice; and on the south-east by the Ionian Sea.

The northern border of Italy is formed by the stupendous range of the Alps, which extends in a long curve, from the shores of the Mediterranean, near Genoa, to the head of the Adriatic. The Alps are connected with the Appenines, an inferior but no less important chain, at their southern bend, in the vicinity of Nice. This chain runs parallel with the shores of the Gulf of Genoa, and thence through the whole peninsular part of Italy to the Straits of Messina, dividing the country into narrow lowland strips, which extend from the mountains to the adjacent seas. Between the Alps and the Appenines, in northern Italy, lies the great plain of Lombardy, which is traversed through its whole length by the Po, and watered by innumerable streams, which pour down from the mountains. The length of this plain, from east to west, is about 250 miles, with an average breadth of 50 miles. In the west it has an elevation of about 300 feet above the sea-level; but it gradually sinks towards the east, and terminates in a low, sandy shore. The fertility of this region is unsurpassed, and its cultivation has, for ages, been admirable. The mountain ranges, by which it is almost bordered, rise abruptly with a steep acclivity, and enclose

among their branches and offsets many fine valleys, some of which contain considerable lakes, which serve as reservoirs for the water, which is turned to account in irrigating the country. The Apennines, in their progress southward, also enclose a number of valleys, narrow and less fertile; further south, however, their branches do not always reach the sea, but leave, in some places, spacious plains, such as the Tuscan and Roman "Maremme," a singular tract, with an undulating surface, which extends along the Mediterranean, from Pisa to Terracina, about 200 miles in length, and of various breadths; the Tavogliera de la Puglia, which is a very wide plain, destitute of trees, and of inferior fertility; and the volcanic region of Terra de Lavord, one of the most fertile districts in the world.

The coasts of Italy are very irregular, and form a large number of bays, gulfs, and straits. The Gulf of Genoa, south of Sardinia, extends seven miles inland, and affords one of the finest and most beautiful harbors in Europe. There is, in the midst of this gulf, a spring of fresh water, rising from the bottom of the sea. The gulfs of Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policastro, and St. Eufemia, on the west coast of Naples; the gulfs of Taranto and Squillace, on the south coast; and on the east coast, those of Manfredonia and Venice, in the Adriatic, are all more or less extensive, and fine harbors. The Faro, or Straits of Messina, divide Naples from Sicily, and present great variation in width, from 3,970 to 13,187 feet. The currents are numerous and uncertain. In settled weather there is a central stream, which runs alternately north and south, six hours each way, at the rate of from two to five knots. On each shore there is a counter-stream, at uncertain distances from the beach, often forming eddies to the central current: but in stormy weather the lateral tides are scarcely perceptible, while the main stream increases so as to send, at intervals, slight whirlpools to each shore. The proverbial terrors the ancients had of passing between Scylla and Charybdis, would appear to be almost imaginary. The celebrated Charybdis, now called Galofaro, is close to the harbor of Messina, and is an agitated water, from 70 to 90 fathoms deep, circling in quick eddies, which seem to be caused by the meeting of the harbor and other lateral currents with the main stream. Small craft are sometimes endangered by it, and ships of war wheel round upon its surface; but with caution there is very little danger or inconvenience attending it. There is a curious atmospheric phenomenon observed occasionally in this strait, called by the sailors "Fata Morgana." It is a species of mirage, occasioned by a peculiar state of the atmosphere, during which, from certain situations, the opposite coast is seen produced in curious forms, as if upon an aerial screen. The channel of Piombino separates the island of Elba from the main, and the Strait of Bonifacio those of Corsica and Sardinia. The Strait of Otranto divides Naples from the opposite shore of Albania. The principal capes and headlands of the peninsula are:—Monte d'Argentaro; Cape Linaro, Cape d'Anzo, Monte Circello, Miseno, Campanella, and Cape Valtiano, all on the west coast; and Spartivento, Stilo, Rizzuto, Cimiti, Nau, and Leuca, on the south-east coast. In the larger islands there are also a number of capes, which are celebrated in history, and which exert great influence on the direction of the currents in this part of the Mediterranean.

The larger Italian islands, Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, are mentioned in the descriptions of the nations to which they belong. The small islands of Malta, Gozo, Comino, and Gorgona, lie a short distance, west by south, of Leghorn. The sardel and anchovy fisheries are pursued by the inhabi-

tants. **ELBA** is a triangular island, 10 miles long and 2 broad, off the coast of Tuscany, and has long been famous for its iron mines. It contains also marble quarries, and produces corn, wine, and almost every variety of fruit. It is celebrated in history as the residence of Napoleon, and for his escape therefrom, in 1814. The principal towns are Porto Ferrajo, with 3,500 inhabitants; Porto Longone, with 1,500; Rio, with 2,000; and Marciana, with 1,200. The population of the whole island is from 13,000 to 15,000. Pianosa, Monte Cristo, Giglio, and Giannuti are small islands south of Elba. The **PONTIAN ISLANDS** of San Stefano, Vandotena, Zannone, Ponza, and Palmarola are a volcanic group off the Gulf of Gaeta; Ponza, the largest, is six miles long, and three broad. Ischia, Procida, and Vivara, volcanic islands, lie at the north-western extremity of the Gulf of Naples. Monte Epomeo, in Ischia, rises to the height of 2,513 feet. Capri, at the south-western extremity of the Gulf of Naples, consists of two lofty hills, one of which exceeds 3,000 feet in height, with a fertile intervalle, which produces much wine and oil. The **LIPARI ISLANDS**, to the north of Sicily, consist of the islands of Lipari, Volcano, Salma, Felicudi, Alicudi, Stromboli, &c. Lipari is the largest, containing 100 square miles. These islands are all volcanic, with rugged surfaces, but the climate is highly salubrious, and the weather generally soft and refreshing. The land is well cultivated, and produces largely of all the grain and fruit of the latitude. A large quantity of wine and currants is annually exported, and an active trade is carried on in bitumen, pumice, nitre, pozzolana, cinnabar, coral and fish. Alum also forms a large export. Total population, 22,000. Lipari, the chief town, is a densely peopled and filthy place. The most remarkable of these islands are Volcano and Stromboli. The former is lofty, with a great crater 2,500 feet high, and not easily accessible, full of scorix, sulphur, alum, vitriol, and muriate of ammonia, and emits dense vapor, accompanied by a great noise, and fire is observable from it at night, when a pale lambent flame issues from many of the fissures. Stromboli is a conical bifurcated mountain, 2,000 feet high, with an irregular base about nine miles in circumference. A crater opens in the side, about a third of the height below the summit, and has continued to burn from the earliest ages, with frequent explosions, and a constant ejection of fiery matter. Tremiti, Pelagosa, and Pianosa, are small islands in the Adriatic. Pantellaria, Linosi, and Lampedosa, lie between Sicily and Africa. These islands are all of volcanic origin, and produce large quantities of useful lavas, &c.

The largest river of Italy is the Po, which rises on the eastern side of Monte Viso, and flows with five great windings, due east to the Adriatic Sea. It has a length of 500 miles, and though a sluggish stream in its early course, frequently rises so high as to overflow its banks, and, but for the dykes which are raised to protect the country, extensive inundations would be the result. It soon becomes a large river, and, thirty miles from its source, is deep enough for boats and barges, but its currents are so rapid that navigation is frequently dangerous. Hence, though it passes more than fifty towns, little advantage, comparatively, is derived from the conveyance of merchandise. The vast body of sand carried down by the Po, has, in the course of ages, formed a large delta, extending into the Adriatic, and which has raised its channel so much, that the water is now about 30 feet higher than the streets of Ferrara, which is only protected by dykes from being overflowed. Numerous affluents, both from the right and left banks, contribute to swell the volume of the river. The Po, near its mouth,



divides into three principal branches, named the Po di Primaro, Po di Volcano, Po di Levante.

The other rivers are all small and insignificant, except in regard to their historical associations. The Adige or Etsch, in Lombardy; the Arno, in Tuscany; the Tiber, the river of Rome, and a few others, complete the catalogue.

The principal lakes are situated at the base of the Alps, on the northern border of Lombardy, but there are also many smaller lakes, and considerable lagoons in the interior, and on the coasts of the peninsula. The Lago Maggiore, formed by the Ticino and 28 smaller streams, is 48 miles in length, and from 4 to 7 broad; its surface is 640 feet above the sea, and its greatest depth is 2,625 feet. Lago Luguno lies to the east of the above. Lake Como is about 37 miles long, and from 1 to 4 in breadth. It is traversed by the Adda, an affluent of the Po. The surface is 650 feet above the sea, and its greatest depth 1,698 feet; but the northern part is shallow, and its shores infested with malaria. The Lake of Iseo, between Bergamo and Brescia, is 20 miles long, and from  $4\frac{1}{2}$  to 7 in breadth; and Lake Garda, one of the most beautiful in Italy, is 35 miles in length, varying from 4 to 14 miles in breadth. Its principal feeder is the river Sarca, and its surplus waters form the Mincio, an affluent of the Po. The lakes of central and southern Italy are principally in the mountains, and formed in old volcanic craters. The grandeur of the scenery which surrounds these small basins is truly sublime, and well might the ancient Romans find in such localities, thrones for their gods and demi-gods. To the scholar this is classic ground, and the readers of the few remains of Roman literature will here discover the realities depicted in the dreams of the poet, and the pages of the historian.

The Pontine Marshes, on the coast, midway between Rome and Naples, 24 miles long and from 6 to 12 miles in breadth, are among the most remarkable tracts in Italy. For many ages repeated efforts were made to drain these pestiferous regions, a work which has been nearly accomplished by the exertions of Popes Pius VI. and VII.; and this tract of country which was formerly fraught with disease and death, may now be traversed with comparative safety, except in the hotter months. The Appian way and the modern road from Rome to Naples pass through them. The marshes now form luxurious pastures for cattle.

The climate is as various as such an extent of latitude would augur, but in addition to this influence it is modified by the proximity of the mountains, and the neighboring seas. In these respects Italy may be divided into four regions: the first including Lombardy and the northern states, in which the thermometer sometimes falls to  $23^{\circ}$  below freezing point, and in which the more tender plants fail to grow, except in sheltered places. The cold wind from the Alps is benumbing, and continues mostly through the winter season. The second region includes Tuscany and the Papal states south of the Apennines, and is sheltered by those mountains from the effects of the north winds, partaking of the character of the more southerly climate. This region is the appropriate climate of the orange, the lemon and the olive, but even here snow is frequently seen on the ground. The summer heat of Florence and Rome often rises to  $90^{\circ}$  Fahr., but in the former the winter is considerably prolonged by the vicinity of the mountains. The third region comprises the greater part of continental Naples. Here the climate is hot, and the winters mild and of short duration.

In the fourth region, which includes Calabria Ultra and Sicily, snow and ice are unknown, except on the tops of Etna and Sila. Tropical fruits come to perfection in the open air, the sugar cane flourishes, cotton ripens, date trees are seen in the gardens, and the enclosures of the fields are formed by aloes. This classification, however, only or principally applies to the lowlands of Italy; for the increasing elevation of the mountains, the vicinity of the sea, and the volcanic nature of the soil, all exercise an influence which occasions many local variations of climate. The tops of the Alps are covered with perpetual snow, and the northern Appenines are clothed with it for many months. South of Manfredonia, on the east and west coasts, winter can scarcely be said to exist, and vegetation continues without interruption, and the air is ever filled with aromatic odours. The mean temperature of Naples is in winter  $27^{\circ} 14'$ , and in summer  $67^{\circ} 35'$  Fahr. The climate, however, is not without great and serious inconveniences: the sun threatens to destroy vegetation; the land, unrefreshed by rain, assumes a russet hue; no cooling breeze fans the feverish brow; and the *sirocco* from Africa, laden with the vapors of the Mediterranean, alike depresses animal and vegetable existence. In addition to these external evils, volcanic heat glows perpetually underground, and periodically sends forth noxious vapors, which sometimes threaten to depopulate whole districts. Numerous swarms of insects fill the air, visit the houses, and are a constant source of vexation. The vast lagunes at the mouth of the Po, the Pontine Marshes, and other similar swamps, generate miasmata, which produce great mortality, and swell the ratio of deaths to an enormous extent. The fairest sky is deceitful in its beauty; and where the vegetation is most luxuriant, there lurk the emissaries of death. Indeed, the very circumstances which form the charm and the theme of praise in the Italian climate are those which render it dangerous. In general rain falls unfrequently, but it makes up for this by falling in torrents, flooding the water courses, overflowing the plains, and saturating the ground with moisture. The powerful sun then bursts forth, and rapidly exhaling not only the aqueous vapor from the soil, but also the miasma generated by the decomposition of animal and vegetable refuse, produces a state of atmosphere which proves lamentably fatal.

The geological characteristics of the two countries on the slopes of the Appenines are essentially different. Lime-stone, however, forms the basis of that range. The country between the Appenines and the sea, on both sides, is much broken, and covered with extensive masses of sand-stone and marl of recent formation, containing remains of well preserved shells, which in many places have scarcely lost their original color and animal matter. These masses, which have been termed the "Sub-Appenines," commence on the Mediterranean side in Lucca, and after some interruption in Naples, terminate in Calabria. The marine hills on the right bank of the Tiber at Rome, and the sand-stone and marl of the Vatican and Janiculus, entirely belong to this formation. Wherever it exists it covers the lime-stone and the older formations in an unconformable and overlaying position. Along the south-western coast a volcanic belt extends from Tuscany in an almost continuous line parallel to the nearest range of mountains into Campania or the Terra de Lavon, in the neighborhood of Naples, but their vents, except those in Campania, were in a state of quiescence long before the appearance of man in the country. Rome lies between two of the most remarkable centres of these volcanic ridges; on the north-west is the trachytic Monte Cimino, between Viterbo and Bolsena, and the extinguished craters of Viterbo, Bolsena,

and La Tolfa; and to the south-west are the basaltic hills of Albano, Frascati, and Marino, and the ancient craters of Albano and Nemi.

The only active volcano now in continental Italy is Monte Vesuvio, on the north-eastern shore of the Bay of Naples. It is composed of another portion, named Monte Somma, evidently the remaining half of a very large crater, and of the modern conical summit rising within and overtopping it. The first recorded eruption occurred in the year 79, since which time its eruptions have been frequent, and often terribly destructive. To the westward of Naples is the volcanic region named the "Phlegræan fields," where, in the year 1538, a hill, still called Monte Nuovo, 413 feet high and 8,000 feet in circumference, was thrown up in two days. Between Monte Nuovo and Puzzuoli is an extinct volcano named Solfatara, from which gaseous exhalations and vapors are continually issuing. The lakes of Agnano and Avernus occupy the craters of extinct volcanoes. Others exist, and according to Brieslac the number of craters in the vicinity of Naples is not less than twenty-seven. The "Grotto del Cane," on the borders of the Lake of Agnano, is perpetually giving out carbonic acid gas, mixed with aqueous vapor, which proves fatal to any animal plunged into it; an experiment often tried with dogs, (*cane*,) hence its name.

The great plain of Lombardy, which covers the whole of northern Italy, is formed of tertiary rocks, more or less covered with deluvium, while the lower range of the Alps and the hills of Brianza are of secondary lime-stone. To the south of Padua rises a tract of high ground, named the "Euganean Hills," which consist of a trachyte formation, evidently of volcanic origin. The tertiary deposit of Lombardy contains the remains of whales of extinct species, of elephants, rhinoceroses, hippopotami, &c.; and fossil remains of the same kind occur more abundantly in the overlaying deluvium. Tertiary and deluvial deposits also extend from Ancona along the coast of the Adriatic, with but little interruption to the extremity of the peninsula.

The soil and vegetation of Italy vary according to the source whence they are derived. The soil of the valley of the Po consists partly of sand and partly of loam, formed from extensive alluvial washings and gradual deposition. Among the hills the soil accords with the rocks from which it has been formed. In the bottom of the great valley it is rich and deep; but along the bases of the Alps and Appenines are vast accumulations or beds of pebbles, thinly covered with mould and but partly cultivable. Every variety, however, occurs, from the clayey composts of the middle Appenines, to the fine, loose and generally dark-brown mould, which has proceeded from the decomposition of volcanic matter, and which is generally highly favorable to vegetation. But besides this difference of soil, the great extent of the country in latitude gives to northern Italy a vegetation almost entirely different from the south; and the elevation of the ground above the sea, from the coast to the peaks of the mountain ridges, occasions also a great variety of vegetable regions. In Northern Italy the forests are ornamented by the chestnut, and the fields are clothed with rich crops of grain, while the vineyards extend over large spaces. The laurel indicates a neighborhood of an evergreen region, and solitary pines and cypresses announce the peculiar forms of the trees which first appear more generally in middle and southern Italy. Rocks tower in picturesque forms above the trees; torrents rush through the deep ravines; and in the back ground, through the foliage of the pine clad mountains, are seen the snowy summits of the Alps.

There is a marked difference between the productions of country north,

and of that south of the Appenines. On the north the vegetation is identical with that of the southern slope of the Alps; whereas, on the south side of the mountains the olive is extensively cultivated, and many other evergreen trees and shrubs appear. Proceeding southward, we find the evergreen-oak, the pistacio tree, and the myrtle. The olive tree extends over all the evergreen region, and the laurel and the orange tree likewise flourish in it. The date palm flourishes best near the coast, but neither this nor the orange tree is much cultivated. Rising above this evergreen region the vegetation of the next zone resembles more that of northern Europe, and deciduous oaks and chestnuts are found at the height of 3,000 feet, and above these the pines and various trees with pointed leaves. At 5,000 to 6,000 feet the beech and the pine are found intermixed with creeping shrubs and alpine plants, which generally reach as high as 7,500 feet, the region of the *arbutus uva ursi* and *juniper nana*. Only a few mountain summits reach the height of this zone.

The vegetation of middle and lower Italy varies much in richness and abundance. In many districts it is most luxuriant; but such luxuriance is not general. Over the far greater part of the calcareous Appenines only a stunted vegetation is formed. The growths do not even hide the roads, but the mountains are picturesque to the eye, and their beauty arises from their outline alone. It is not, however, only what is produced spontaneously that imparts specific characters to a landscape; it is, in a great degree, modified by cultivation. In this respect middle and southern Italy present great differences. In the one the regularly planted aloe, and in the other the vine propped up by elms and poplars, distinguish the scenery. In the fertile plains of Naples the latter climbs with its tendrils around the well cultivated fields, and forms a sheltering roof for the wheat and maize, which they bear.

There seems to be few, if any, wild animals peculiar to Italy; the wolf, however, is still found in the Appenines, and the wild boar in Calabria. There is a great variety of birds, and among the insects the tarantula and silk-worm are equally celebrated. The domestic animals are not remarkable, the country being but moderately adapted to grazing. The common breed of oxen is one of the largest known, and another species is found in Tuscany, much smaller, and is esteemed for its fine form and pure white color. Sheep are in general scarce; and in Southern Italy the cheese, butter and milk are derived from goats which are kept in flocks. The hogs are all of the long-legged unimproved breed. At San Rossara, near Pisa, there is a breed of the Arabian camel which was introduced about two centuries ago, but has considerably degenerated, the soil and climate being uncongenial for its prosperity.

The Italians are a mixed race, composed of Greeks, Gauls, Germans, and many others, who have migrated to the peninsula at various times and intermingled with the Aborigines, whose language they have superseded. They have long been divided into separate tribes, with separate social and political interests, speaking dialects so different, that the inhabitants of one province can scarcely, if at all, understand the language of another. From these dialects, however, has been framed a speech which, by cultivation, has attained a peculiar character, and has become a common bond of union. The language of Danté, Petrarch, Tasso and Ariosto, is understood by all well educated Italians, and has the distinguishing name of the Tuscan. The basis of the Italian is the Latin, but very much modified by foreign interpolation and the inevitable changes of many centuries.

The social position of Italy has for ages been one of the most degrading, and the people themselves in a most wretched condition. Heaven and hell seem to have laid on their shoulders their heaviest curses. No country in the world presents so many beggars, and no people was ever so stripped by its swarms of priests. In the city the cares of the passing hour are all that is attended to. In the country agriculture is the great employment, but few of those engaged are enjoying a bare competency. They live on very small farms, at most four acres in extent, in miserable hovels, and support themselves and families on half the produce of the land, the other half being the claim of the proprietor. This is the condition of the great mass of the people of northern and middle Italy; while in the south, the *lazzaroni* of Naples are living proofs of the wretched condition of great numbers in that more fertile soil and more temperate climate. An excessive population and a system of legislation favorable only to the rich, are the chief causes of these evils. The day, however, is at hand, when the humble shall be exalted and those in the high places abased. The whole country is alive to the necessity of a speedy revolution, and even kings and princes seem anxious for the disenthralment of their people.

All Italy is Roman Catholic. There are, however, some few professing other forms of Christianity, but so few and uninfluential as scarcely to form an exception. The classes referred to are the *Vaudois* or *Waldenses*, an ancient sect of Protestants who occupy the valleys of Lucerne, Angrogno and St. Martin in Piedmont; the Calvinists and Lutherans, established in the great commercial towns; and the Greeks of Venice, Leghorn, &c. The Jews, who live in all the large towns, are most numerous in Rome, Leghorn and Venice. The Roman Catholic clergy are said to amount to 500,000, or one to every 40 of the inhabitants. The hierarchy, however, has been much reduced; but still the churches possess great wealth, and are everywhere sumptuous in their decorations and ornaments. Religious ceremonies are performed with great pomp and solemnity. The higher clergy possess great power, and every grade enjoys immunities of person and property, and in most cases all are exempt from taxation. The moral virtues of the people owe but little to the institutions of the church; and though religion is interwoven with the whole fabric of Italian life, and pervades intensely the entire frame of society, it exercises but little influence for good on the conduct and character of the masses of the people. Penances, confessions and absolutions are the almost universal substitutes for moral qualities; and little beyond the efficacy of these is inculcated in religious instruction.

Italy, indeed, is one mass of ignorance—nowhere is education so much despised. The little learning that does exist is with the princes and clergy, the latter of whom, as in duty bound, take good care to dispense sparingly such a precious commodity. Few of the peasants can read, while of the mechanics in towns it is difficult to find one who can write his own name. The institutions for the education of even the higher classes are much behind those of any other portion of Europe. Nothing is taught that is calculated either to improve the taste or to foster freedom and expansion of thought. Casuistry is the only science sedulously cultivated. Notwithstanding all these impediments, many Italians become highly educated and talented men—men of genius, who acquire knowledge not by means of institutions, but in spite of them.

With respect to agriculture, the countries east and west of the Apennines, differ in many respects; and there is a large portion of the latter where, though profuse in vegetation, the extinction of animal life is certain. This is the "Maremma," which extends along the sea-coast from Pisa to Terracina. The plain of Lombardy, included in the eastern division, is without doubt one of the richest countries of the world; it is entirely alluvial, but in the tracts nearest the mountains much gravel is mixed with the mould. The neighboring mountains supply water in abundance, and to this, not less than the natural richness of the soil, is Lombardy indebted for its fertility, and rendered capable of supplying its dense population. The system of irrigation is here the most perfect conceivable, but the culture of corn, in a great degree, gives place to pasturage, which affords food for the cows that produce the cheese, so well-known throughout Europe as the *Parmesan*. About 80,000 cows are kept for this purpose, whose annual product is almost 200 lbs. each, of which an average value of 23,500,000 francs is exported. The other principal staples are wheat, maize, oats, rye, hemp, flax, and legumes; and in the flat grounds rice, of which the quantity raised is now very considerable. In no other part of Italy is the culture of silk so large, so valuable, and so well understood, as in the north; and with the increase of this culture the value of land and the comforts of the people have co-relatively improved. The estimated production of raw silk in Italy is about twelve millions of pounds annually; of which Lombardy produces 7,000,000, Sardinia 2,000,000, Naples and Sicily 1,200,000, Papal States 800,000, Tuscany 300,000, and the small states the remainder. This amount, at \$5 a pound, would be worth \$60,000,000. The cultivation of the land is performed solely by means of oxen. The implements used are everywhere rude, and of unimproved construction. About four-fifths of the Lombards are engaged in agriculture, and about eight-ninths of the land is under cultivation.

The Genoese territory, rising from the sea into hills and mountains, is less adapted to agriculture than for gardens and orchards. The olive, chestnut, and southern fruits, are everywhere seen; and on the high land, pasturage is the occupation of the inhabitants. The cultivation of the olive, however, is the main maintenance of the country. In good years 150 or 200 trees, on a surface of 200 acres, will produce from 500 to 800 gallons of oil. The orange and lemon are also extensively grown. The pastoral part of the population is more opulent than the olive growers, but the universal practice is to unite the two branches.

Property in Tuscany, and indeed in all Italy, is extremely sub-divided, and farmers generally share the produce with the landlord. Besides the ordinary crops of grain, this country is the region of the vine as well as the olive. Agriculture is here more perfect, and a judicious succession of crops acts beneficially on the natural productiveness of the soil. An immense population lives from the produce of these farms, but still the condition of the people, in spite of the riches of the land, is miserable in the extreme. The finest part of Tuscany is the valley of the Arno, which is everywhere carefully cultivated. The culture of silk, which would here find every availability, is much neglected, and the same may be said of other staples suitable for export. The wines of Tuscany are little known; the principal portion being of inferior quality, and manufactured only for home consumption. Indeed the vine, so suitable to this region, is a subordinate culture: little pains is taken with the vintage, and the process of wine making is the same it has been for generations. The greatest drawback to the agricultu-

rist in Italy, is the extreme disproportion of labor and the result. Agriculture gives no fair return for capital, and the expense of maintaining a farm leaves little for the profit either of the owner or tenant.

The "Maremma" spoken of before, offers many attractions to cultivation and capital. The greatest variety of soil and temperature prevails, but the whole is pestiferous and fatal to life. Some improvements have indeed been made of late, and a few poor debilitated farmers possess these, the richest lands in Italy, and supply their neighbors with luxuries produced at the cost of health and life. Herds of buffaloes and other horned cattle are frequently met with, and sheep, to the number of 60,000 or 80,000, are fed on the declivities of the hills.

Most of the lands in the Roman States are divided into large properties, varying from 1,200 to 2,500 acres; but in the neighborhood of the towns the property is more divided. Agriculture is backward, owing to the ignorance of the people where they are numerous, and to the want of population in the marshy districts. The principal productions of this section are corn, wheat and maize, rice, hemp, wine, vinegar, brandy, oil, timber, charcoal, tobacco, and culinary vegetables—with melons, garlic, onions, potatoes, flax, seeds and oleaginous vegetables, dye-woods, bark, potash and soda, mulberry trees, anise seed, &c. Buffaloes, goats, mules, and other animals for carriages are to be found, but not in large numbers. Domestic poultry and game is produced in abundance.

The mineral kingdom affords little of wealth to Italy. Formerly the precious metals were wrought, but at present the chief products are some alum in the Papal states and Naples; vitriol and antimony in Parma, and sulphur in the southern kingdoms. Lombardy produces iron and copper, and Tuscany confines its mining operations to the iron of Elba. The marbles of Carrara are yielded from twelve quarries, and alabaster, building stone, &c., are quarried in several parts. The whole system of Italian industry, however, is oppressive; and as a consequence, the products, when obtained, scarcely yields to the laborers paying profits. There are many salt springs in Romagna and other places, and a quantity of salubrious mineral waters, both hot and cold. Those of Porretta, near Bologna, and of Agua Santa, in the Roman states, are particularly esteemed; of Naples, the mineral products are unimportant, and consist chiefly of some iron, with mines of rock salt, which are little worked.

The fisheries are important, and contribute largely to supply the people with food. The most considerable are those for the tunny and the anchovy. These fisheries are carried on under the joint-stock system, and companies generally include all the working men of the sea districts where they are pursued. The lakes and rivers also yield a considerable quantity of fish. The coasts swarm with mullets; and a great variety of testaceous and crustaceous fish, among which are prawns of gigantic size, is taken along the whole coast. Sword-fish are also taken with the harpoon in the straits of Messina; their flesh is esteemed very delicate, and when broiled, resembles veal.

Manufacturing industry in Italy is very limited. In Lombardy and Venice, however, silk, woollen and linen goods are made on an extensive scale. Woollen goods of almost every description are manufactured in Venice, Padua and Como. Tuscany is noted for its straw-hats. Milan has long been celebrated for its weapons and arms, and iron work of all kinds

is still extensively carried on. Besides these great branches, the smaller manufactures are actively engaged in : paper, glass, gold and silver articles, and domestic utensils are produced to a large amount. The commerce of this section, however, is very limited, and has been much injured by the Austrian connection.

Except, indeed, in the manufacture of silk and some few minor articles, the sovereignties of Peninsular Italy are not signalized as manufacturing states. Ribbons and fine leathers are made at Rome, Bologna, &c., and vitriol factories have become numerous in the sulphur districts. The manufactures of Naples are chiefly of a domestic kind, but there are some considerable establishments for silk, leather, and other goods, among which glass, earthenware, and porcelain are conspicuous. The exports of Italy consist chiefly of agricultural produce, silks, wool, hides, &c., olive oil, sulphur, wine, spirits, and some small amount of fancy manufactures. The imports are the productions of the East and West Indies, manufacturing machinery, and some few other articles from different countries. The Genoese are the most active in commercial affairs, and trade to every part of the world ; but as a whole the Italians do not foster commerce, although, perhaps, better located for that purpose than any other country of like dimensions.

Internal communication in Italy is well sustained, especially in Sardinia and Lombardy, by good roads ; and land transportation, in the absence of any internal navigable waters, has become almost universal. Railroads have been introduced in Northern Italy, but until lately, such encroachments on the old system have been excommunicated from the Papal states, and generally throughout the peninsula. Several great roads have been constructed over the Alps, so that intercourse with Switzerland and Germany is comparatively well provided for.

Lombardy abounds with numerous canals, some of which are navigable, but they are principally used for irrigation. The most considerable as well as the most ancient of these is that between Ticino and Milan, opened in 1270. The Nuovo Naviglia di Pavia, which was completed in 1819, extends from Milan to Pavia, where it falls into the Adda, and thus places Milan in direct communication with the seaports of Goro, Chioggio and Venice. In Tuscany the Arno is usually navigable from Florence to the sea. There are canals from Pisa to Leghorn ; from Pisa to the Serchio, lake of Bientino, and that of Ficecchio, which communicates with the Arno. Parts of some other rivers are navigable, but southern Italy must ever depend on overland routes, as canals are impracticable, and the expense of railroads will long prevent their being built to any extent. During the empire of Napoleon, several extensive projects for improving Italy in this respect were made and some undertaken, and well would it have been for the country had that great man been allowed to complete the system he had designed.

We shall now proceed to describe the several states into which Italy is divided, and which are generally referred to in a subsequent table.

Italy is divided into ten sovereign states ; in all of which, with the exception of the petty republic of San Marino, the government was, until lately, vested in an absolute monarch, and was everywhere exercised with the most rigorous despotism. The recent revolutionary movements throughout Europe, however, have contributed much to a general remodelling of the whole system, and have operated in the conversion of the absolute



monarchies to constitutional forms; and many other organic changes are being effected for the general benefit of states and the people. The power of Austria, which has so long and effectually checked the energies of the people, is now virtually abrogated. The great movement of the day is the confederation of the whole of Italy for mutual defence, and a more intimate union of all interests. For this purpose a congress has been called, and the representatives of the states have already decided on an organic law. The principal provisions of this instrument are:—Union and a common executive, and a national congress, leaving, however, to the states, severally, their own internal management. The national government to have control of the customs, war, diplomatic relations, &c., and such other general matters as pertain to the collective interests of the confederation. If these provisions are carried out, Italy must become a powerful nation, and the liberties of the people become more and more developed. Already they have gained much, and with an unshackled press and the influence of foreign example, there seems to be every reasonable certainty that the political condition of the country will become more liberalized and enlightened. Hitherto it has been the most oppressed and priest-ridden country in the world, and, in many respects, inferior to Turkey or Russia. Of the states comprised in Italy, three are kingdoms; one, a grand duchy; one, an elective ecclesiastical monarchy; three, duchies, and one, a republic. The names, population, and chief towns, are stated in the following table:

NAMES OF STATES.	Area in Square Miles.	POPULATION.		CHIEF TOWNS.
		Aggregate.	To Sq. Miles.	
LOMBARDY and VENICE—Kingdom.	18,063.	4,671,000.	259.	Milan.
SARDINIA.....	29,098.	4,650,000.	159.	Turin.
NAPLES }	31,407.	6,123,000.	194.	Naples.
SICILY }	10,508.	1,964,000.	186.	Palermo.
TUSCANY.....Grand Duchy.	8,381.	1,600,000.	190.	Florence.
LUCCA.....Duchy.	410.	160,000.	390.	Lucca.
PARMA.....	2,184.	466,000.	213.	Parma.
MODENA.....	2,973.	410,000.	138.	Modena.
STATES OF THE CHURCH .Elec. Mon.	17,218.	2,846,000.	165.	Rome.
SAN MARINO.....Republic.	21.	7,500.	357.	San Marino.
MALTA, &c.....British depend.	206.	130,000.	631.	Malta.
Total.....	120,469.	23,027,500.	191	

Of the kingdoms and duchies the sovereigns are hereditary. The sovereignty of the Papal States is vested in the Pope, the primate or head of the Roman Catholic Church, and "*Viceregent of God*" on earth. He is elected for life, out of their own body by the College of Cardinals, and unites in his person the three offices of Supreme Pontiff, Bishop of Rome, and temporal sovereign of the Roman state. The Republic of San Marino is situated in the Papal territories, and is under the Pope's protection. The Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom, or States of Lombardy and Venice, form part of the Empire of Austria, and are directly ruled by a Viceroy, under the control and direction of the imperial ministry of Vienna. Besides the states above-mentioned, there is the small PRINCIPALITY OF MONACO; but the prince resides in Paris, allowing his territories to be garrisoned by Sardinian troops; and is, in fact, merely a mediatized prince, subject to the king of Sardinia.

### THE KINGDOM OF SARDINIA.

THE Kingdom of SARDINIA occupies all the north of Italy west of the Tessino, including the territory of Piedmont, Genoa and Nice, and the

Duchy of Savoy on the west side of the Alps, with the island of Sardinia in the Mediterranean, nearly the whole of these dominions being included between  $39^{\circ}$  and  $46^{\circ}$  N. latitude, and between  $5^{\circ}$  and  $10^{\circ}$  E. longitude. The superficial area is about 29,093 square miles, of which 19,857 are on the continent, and 9,241 in the island of Sardinia.

The States of Sardinia present a very diversified scenery. Savoy does not belong geographically to this kingdom: it is truly an alpine country, separated by an enormous ridge—the grey Alps—from the Peninsula, and throughout is intersected by high mountains, the summits of which are covered with snow and ice. Piedmont forms a part of the large valley which begins at the pass of Susa, and ends at the eastern bounds of Italy. The Po divides it into two unequal parts. The northern extremity reaches to the foot of the Alps—the southern is separated from the coast districts by the Appenines; and the boundaries on the side of France are formed by the Cottian Alps. The maritime districts are those of Nice and Genoa, which surround the Gulf of Genoa, and are separated from the rest of the continent by the Appenines. Both are mountainous countries. Sardinia is also very mountainous. It presents a barren aspect, and is intersected by several ridges of small elevation, through which run two large rivers, bordered with marshes and swamps. Savoy and Piedmont have their principal declination towards the Mediterranean; and the large valley surrounded by the Alps and Appenines, slopes imperceptibly towards the Adriatic.

Sardinia is essentially an agricultural country, and in many parts of the kingdom a good system is pursued; but the farmers are much oppressed by the landlords, to whom they pay more than half the produce for the use of the land. Corn, maize, rice, beans, and tobacco, are the principal staples. Cattle rearing claims the chief attention of Piedmont, Savoy, and Sardinia; and sheep are very numerous in the two latter districts. Silk is extensively produced, and that of Piedmont is considered the best of Europe. In Sardinia, whole forests of wild olive trees exist, and in this island the best wines are produced.

Mining is a neglected branch of industry, though the mountains are rich in minerals, and gold is found in the sands of Tanaro. Copper, antimony, arsenic, and zinc, abound in Aosta, and in Mont Rosa there are gold mines. Gold, indeed, is found in several places. Cobalt is found east of Mont Blanc, and black lead near the baths of Binay.

Fishing is carried on both in fresh and salt water; the latter is most considerable, and belongs particularly to the island of Sardinia. The tunny fisheries are said to produce to the island 1,000,000 francs a year. The fishing of corals is also a very considerable source of wealth.

Upper Italy was once as famous for its manufactures and commerce as for its agriculture; and the velvets, silks, and stockings of Genoa were celebrated throughout Europe. These manufactures, however, notwithstanding they have the best material, cannot now stand competition with those of other countries. Sixth-sevenths of all the silk produced is exported, and scarcely sufficient linen is woven for home consumption. There are a good many smelting furnaces in Piedmont and Savoy.

Sardinia exports silk, rice and oil, with some few other unimportant articles. The corn and wine are almost all consumed in the country. Four fifths of foreign commerce centres in Genoa. The roads from this port into the interior are excellent, and afford facilities to the trade of the interior.

The average value of imports is 125,000,000 francs, and of the exports 90,000,000 francs; but it is probable that a large amount of the imports enter Sardinian ports on Swiss account, all transit duties having been abolished. The government has adopted the decimal system of weights, measures, &c.

The government is a constitutional monarchy, and the crown descends hereditarily in the male line. The king is assisted by a council of ministers, composed of the heads of the several departments of state. Previous to 1848, the monarchy was absolute; but the king, favoring the revolutionary movement of that period, gave the nation a constitution. Each of the intendants into which the kingdom is divided, is under an intendant, who has merely executive power. Inferior intendants are appointed to the towns and districts. The financial system of Sardinia is one of the best regulated in Europe. A yearly budget is brought up, and there is every year a surplus of revenue. The expenditures amount to between 70 and 80 millions of francs in ordinary years. Salt and tobacco are royal monopolies. The public debt amounts to 152,000,000 liras, or about \$30,000,000, the interest of which is punctually paid, and the securities enjoy great confidence, and rarely appear in the market. Institutions for the support of the poor, relief of the sick, &c., are very numerous; and there are no less than 18,000 children maintained in the foundling hospitals. Education, however, is in a very low condition; few elementary schools have been established, and where they do exist, they are under the superintendence of ignorant and ill-paid teachers. The people are much hampered by the priests, but have spirit enough not to allow them to interfere in the education of their children. There is in Turin one principal university, with four faculties; and there are secondary universities at Chambery, Asti, Mondovi, Nice, Novara, Saluzzo, and Vercelli, either for the study of medicine only, or for medicine and jurisprudence. Chambers of commerce and agriculture are established at Turin, Genoa, Nice, and Chambery, which are composed of land-owners, bankers, merchants, and manufacturers, and from time to time public exhibitions take place of the productions of national industry. The Piedmontese are distinguished above all other Italians for their energy of character, their extraordinary industry, their devotion to literary enquiry, the regularity of the state economy, the efficiency of their army, and the general activity of the people.

The continental territory is divided for administrative purposes into eight intendants, and subdivided into forty sub-intendants. The general intendants are likewise co-extensive with the eight military divisions of this part of the kingdom:

<i>Intendancies.</i>	<i>Area in sq. m.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Pop. to sq. m.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
TORINO .....	3,186 .....	873,310 .....	" .....	TORINO, (Turin) .....	114,000
CUNEO .....	2,712 .....	566,181 .....	" .....	Cuneo or Coni .....	18,000
ALESANDRIA .....	2,039 .....	595,563 .....	" .....	Alesandria .....	35,000
NOVARA .....	2,692 .....	542,723 .....	" .....	Novara .....	15,000
AOSTA .....	1,234 .....	78,110 .....	" .....	Aosta .....	6,000
NIZZA .....	1,619 .....	230,718 .....	" .....	Nizza or Nice .....	26,000
GENOVA .....	2,105 .....	674,983 .....	" .....	Genova or Genoa .....	113,000
SAVOIA .....	4,270 .....	564,137 .....	" .....	Chambery .....	11,000
Total .....	19,857 .....	4,125,735 .....	207.7		
Island of Sardinia .....	9,241 .....	524,633 .....	56.7	Cagliari .....	27,000
Grand Total .....	29,098 .....	4,650,368 .....	159.8		

**TORINO**, or **Turin**, the capital of the kingdom, is situated on the left bank of the Po, and is one of the most regularly built cities in Europe. It contains about 115 churches and chapels, some of which are remarkable for their architecture, and the splendor and taste of their ornaments. **Turin** is the see of an archbishop, and the seat of the Senate of Piedmont, and has also a fine mint. It has a large number of literary institutions, and its museums are pronounced as the richest in the world. Around the city, the country is delightful, and much beautified by pleasant villages and rural retreats. To the south-west of **Turin** are the three valleys of the **Vaudois**, or **Waldenses**, a remarkable Protestant sect, which have been located in the midst of this Catholic country for many ages.

**CUNEO**, or **Coni**, is a large episcopal city with considerable trade, 50 miles S. by W. of **Turin**. This city was formerly an important fortress, but the works have been demolished. **ALESANDRIA** is also a large town, and important for its cloth and linen factories, and trade. It was once famous as a stronghold, but nothing except the citadel remains. On the south-east of the town is the village and battle field of **Marengo**, where **Bonaparte** gained a great victory over the **Austrians** in 1800. **NOVARA** has considerable trade and an industrious population. **AOSTA** contains a Roman triumphal arch and the remains of an amphitheatre. **NIZZA**, or **Nice**, is situated about 100 miles south by west of **Turin**, in a delightful location at the mouth of the **Paglione**, at the foot of an amphitheatre of hills, which are cultivated like a garden, and covered with country houses and orange and lemon groves. **VILLA-FRANCA** is the station of the royal navy, and has a school of navigation.

**MONACO**, a small town on the coast, east of **Nice**, is the capital of a sovereign principality, but under the complete control of the king of **Sardinia**. No trifling part of the Prince's revenue is derived from a tax which he levies on travellers passing through his petty state.

**GENOA** (*Genova la Superba*), is a large, strong and commercial city, on the east side of a bay on the **Gulf of Genoa**, which forms a large and capacious harbor. The city is built on the slope of a hill in a delightful situation; but few of the streets are remarkable for elegance, though they contain many large and costly palaces and public buildings. Its numerous churches are all magnificent. It possesses a university with 29 professors, and a number of other places devoted to education and amusement. It has also an arsenal and building slips for the royal navy. The "*Albergo dei Povere*" is perhaps the most magnificent poor's house in Europe; it is sufficiently capacious for 2,000 inmates, and serves as a refuge for the destitute, a house of correction, and a school where every person able to work is taught some useful trade. **Genoa** is the seat of an archbishop, a council of admiralty, and of a judicial senate or tribunal of appeal. Besides the walls of the city, a large extent of ground surrounding the harbor is also enclosed with fortifications. A part of the enclosure is considered as a free port, and displays a great degree of commercial activity. **Genoa** was long the capital of a sovereign state, and the rival of **Venice** in maritime power and commerce. But its independence was lost during the French invasion of **Italy**; and in 1815 the city and adjoining territory was assigned by the Congress of **Vienna** to the king of **Sardinia**. The civic government is now vested in a great town council, which is self elected, and a little town council, upon the latter of which the ordinary business devolves. The opposite sides of the gulf have long been known by the names of **Riviera di Levante** and **Riviera di Ponente**, or the eastern and western shores. **Savoni**, **Voltri**, **Chiavari**, **Bobbio**, and **Oneglia**, are all in the intendency of **Genoa**,

and noted for their manufactures and commerce. **SPEZZIA**, a small town, is beautifully situated at the head of the fine gulf to which it gives its name. **CAGOLETTO**, a small village, claims the honor of being the birth-place of Columbus, and his house is still shown.

**CHAMBERY**, the capital of Savoy, is a small archiepiscopal city, in a fertile and well cultivated plain on the great road from Lyon to Mont Cenis. The streets are gloomy and crowded, and none of the public buildings are worthy of notice. A railway passes through the town. **CHAMOUNY**, a priory and hamlet, 40 miles south-east of Geneva, 3,463 feet above the level of the sea, is situated in a secluded valley 12 miles long and one in width, surrounded by glaciers and lofty mountains, among which rises Mont Blanc, the "monarch of mountains," the highest of the Alps. It is from Chamouny that the ascent of Mont Blanc is usually made.

The **ISLAND OF SARDINIA**, the largest in the Mediterranean, is divided into ten provinces, and contains about 400 towns and villages. It is very productive, and maintains a considerable commerce. The government is entrusted to a viceroy, assisted by a Stamenti or Parliament, which consists of three estates: the first or ecclesiastical, comprises the bishops, abbots and chapters; the second or military, comprises the nobles; and the third or royal, is formed by the councillors of the seven cities. Their powers are limited to raising taxes, and every three years a junta of deputies of the three orders grants to the government certain contributions or donativi, which the king demands by circular letters.

**CAGLIARI**, the capital of the island, situated in a deep bay on the south shore, is a large, but ill-built, ill-paved and crowded town, and has considerable trade. It is also the see of an archbishop, and possesses a university which is well attended. **SASSARI**, on the north-west, is a fine town, with a university and 1,800 inhabitants.

Sardinia contains numerous remains of antiquity, the most remarkable of which are the "Nurages," which are conical towers, constructed of large cubic stones without cement. The largest are from 50 to 60 feet high and 90 in diameter. The interior is divided into three dark chambers, one above the other, and communicating by a spiral staircase. Under several of them burial places and subterraneous passages have been discovered. In some instances an outer wall of the same construction, 10 feet high, encloses the terrace on which the Nurage is built, with a circuit of 130 feet. Of these buildings more than 600 are scattered over the island.—(*Foreign Quart. Rev.* xii. 252.) Sardinia came into the possession of the Duke of Savoy in 1719, with the title of king by grant from the great powers of Europe, in exchange for Sicily, which he had received as a new kingdom at the peace of Utrecht.

The nucleus of the Sardinian monarchy was the small Alpine country of Savoy. This state dates from 1016, from which period it was governed by its own counts. In 1050 extensive districts in Piedmont were acquired by marriage; and in 1399 Nice, and in 1418 the whole of Piedmont, were added. The sovereigns of Savoy and Piedmont were long celebrated for their ability, and the skill with which they preserved and extended their limited dominions, notwithstanding the difficulty of their position in the immediate vicinity of the great powers of Europe. This territory was recognised as a separate kingdom at the peace of Utrecht in 1713. Sicily was then added to the Piedmontese dominion, but in 1719 it was exchanged for the island of Sardinia. Genoa and its territory, Monaco, &c., were annexed to the

Sardinian crown at the peace of 1815. The present king of Sardinia has been very liberal in his policy, but at the same time exhibits to the world that the encroaching genius of his ancestors still lives in their representative. The king aims at the subduction of Lombardy and Venice, and is ambitious of the crown of United Italy. His son has been invited to assume the crown of Sicily, one of the ancient possessions of the house of Savoy.

The sovereign takes the title of King of Sardinia and Cypress, Duke of Savoy, Piedmont and Genoa, with a long string of inferior titles; and the Prince Royal is styled Duke of Savoy and Prince of Piedmont.

### THE LOMBARDO-VENETIAN KINGDOM. (AUSTRIAN ITALY.)

This kingdom occupies the north-eastern part of the plain of Lombardy, and some adjacent territories. It now forms an integral portion of the Austrian Empire, under the government of a viceroy; and is divided, for administrative purposes, into the two governments of "Milan," or the Lombard Provinces, and "Venice," or the Venetian Provinces; each of which is subdivided into delegations. In the capital of each delegation is a court of first instance, for civil and criminal business; in Milan and Venice are courts of appeal, and at Verona a high court of revision, for the whole kingdom. The delegations of each sub-government are stated in the annexed:

<i>Delegations.</i>	<i>Area in sq. miles.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Pop. to sq. mile.</i>	<i>Capitals.</i>
<b>MILAN :—</b>				
Milano.....	1,018....	498,000....	"	MILAN.....160,000
Como.....	1,285....	369,000....	"	Como.....16,000
Sondrio.....	1,314....	89,000....	"	Sondrio.....4,900
Pavia.....	517....	158,000....	"	Pavia.....24,000
Lodi.....	722....	223,000....	"	Lodi.....16,000
Bergamo.....	1,399....	348,000....	"	Bergamo.....3,300
Brescia.....	1,255....	349,000....	"	Brescia.....35,000
Cremona.....	479....	189,000....	"	Cremona.....27,000
Mantua.....	579....	266,000....	"	Mantua.....30,000
Total.....	8,538	2,489,000	292.8	
<b>VENICE :—</b>				
Venezia.....	1,085....	283,000....	"	VENICE.....110,000
Padova.....	844....	306,000....	"	Padua.....53,000
Vicenza.....	874....	315,000....	"	Vicenza.....31,000
Verona.....	1,454....	317,000....	"	Verona.....49,000
Rovigo.....	439....	158,000....	"	Rovigo.....10,000
Treviso (Polesino).....	755....	266,000....	"	Treviso.....20,000
Belluno.....	314....	147,000....	"	Belluno.....13,000
Udino (Friuli).....	2,760....	390,000....	"	Udino.....22,000
Total.....	9,525	2,182,000	229.1	
Grand Total.....	18,063	4,671,000	259.5	

MILAN (Milano, Meyland,) the capital of Lombardy, lies on the river Olono, in the centre of a large plain, noted for its beauty and richness. It contains some spacious streets, but generally they are narrow, irregular and filthy. Its palaces and elegant mansions, however, redeem it from insignificance, and its public edifices rank among the most massive and gorgeous of any European city. It is intersected by three navigable canals, one of

which extends to Pavia. The city is surrounded by broad ramparts, planted with trees, but the principal attraction is the *Duomo* or Cathedral, a very large building of the mixed Gothic, of white marble, and profusely adorned with pinnacles and statues. This structure was commenced in 1385, by the first duke of Milan, and is yet unfinished, although Napoleon and the emperors of Austria expended large sums for the purpose. It measures 486 feet long, and 298 broad, and to the top of the cupola 258 feet; but it has neither domes nor towers to relieve its massiveness. In a fine subterranean chapel, which is sumptuously adorned, rests the body of San Carlo Borromeo, in a crystal sarcophagus, ornamented with silver gilding. The church of St. Ambrose, the oldest in Milan, is an assemblage of every order of architecture, from the days of Theodosius, who did penance before its gates. Among the other public buildings may be mentioned, the archiepiscopal palaces; the theatre "del Scala," one of the largest in Europe; the lazaretto and great hospital (2,200 beds;) the several scientific institutions; and the magnificent triumphal arch, which serves as the terminus of the road of the Simplin. Milan is the residence of the Viceroy of Lombardy and the see of an archbishop, and from its favorable situation it has become the general entrepôt of the trade of northern Italy. Its commerce is very extensive, and in printing and book-selling it rivals Venice, Turin, and Florence. Milan contains a population of 160,000, of which the priesthood and other attachés of the church form no inconsiderable part.

There are several other cities in the Milanese, which are important chiefly from their historical connection. *MONZA*, near Milan, is noted as the place where Charlemagne received the iron crown of the Lombard Kings, which is still preserved in the cathedral. It contains also a fine palace of the Viceroy and a very rich botanic garden. *COMO*, on the lake of the same name, has flourishing manufactures and a large cathedral. *LECCO* and *DONGO* are busy commercial towns. *SONDRIO*, on the Adda, is a vast town, and *BORMIO* (Worms) is noted for the baths of St. Martin in its vicinity, and its connection with the great military road over Monte Stelvio, or the *Stilfersjoch*, which commences at these baths, and reaches the elevation of 9,232 feet above the level of the sea. *CHIAVENNA* (Clevés,) upon the Maira, carries on a considerable trade along the great roads with which it is connected. *PAVIA*, near the left bank of the Ticino, is more remarkable for its antiquity and its historical celebrity as the capital of the Lombard Kings, than from its present importance. It has an excellent university, &c. Population, 24,000. *LODI*, on the right bank of the Adda, over which there is an ancient bridge, memorable for the "terrible passage" effected by Bonaparte in 1796. The citizens manufacture pottery and silk, and carry on a large trade in Parmesan cheese, which is all made in the surrounding district. Population, 16,000. *BERGAMO* has 3,000 inhabitants, and is chiefly engaged in silk manufactures and general trade. Its annual fair, held in August, is one of the best attended in Italy. *BRESCIA*, with 35,000 inhabitants, manufactures cutlery, arms and silk. *CREMONA* is a large city on the left bank of the Po. It is chiefly remarkable for its fiddle manufactories. Its cathedral is a most magnificent structure. *MANTUA* is situated in the middle of a lake formed by the Mincio, and connected with the mainland by causeways. It is one of the principal fortresses in Europe. Population, 30,000. In the vicinity are—the magnificent Gothic church of "Santa Maria delle Grazie," on the lake, almost entirely covered with votive tablets, and visited annually by as many as from 80,000 to 100,000 pilgrims; "Pietole," a fort on the right bank of the Mincio, constructed to

maintain the inundation which surrounds Mantua and makes it inaccessible, except at four points, defended by formidable batteries, viz : St. George's Bridge, the Citadel, the Pradella gate, and the Port of Pietole, which is supposed to be the site of "Andes," the birth place of Virgil ; and "Peschiera," a fortress on the Mincio, at the outlet of the lake Garda.

VENEZIA (Venedig, Venise, Venice,) the capital of the kingdom of Venice, is built upon a cluster of islands in the midst of a salt lagoon, or shallow lake, separated from the sea by a long strip of firm sand, through which there are several openings for the tide. Venice is one of the most ancient and most magnificent cities in Europe, though its streets are very narrow and in some cases scarcely wide enough for a foot passenger. The chief thoroughfares, however, are its canals, which traverse it in every direction. The principal canal, 300 feet wide, extends through the centre of the city in a long curve line, and is crossed near the middle of its course by the "Ponte di Rialto," a fine marble structure of one arch. In the midst of this labyrinth of canals and narrow streets are numerous piazzas or open areas, almost every one of which is adorned with a church or a palace. The finest of these is the "Piazza de San Marco," surrounded with elegant buildings, and containing at its eastern extremity the metropolitan church of San Marco, a singular but splendid combination of Gothic and Saracen architecture. Adjoining the church is the ancient palace of the Doges, the prisons, and other public buildings of the late republic of Venice. The arsenal is likewise a spacious structure, placed on an island three miles in circumference, and strongly fortified ; it is now the head quarters of the Austrian navy, and communicates with the Adriatic by a deep channel through the lagoon. Venice is seven miles in circumference, and is situated about four miles from Fusina, the principal landing place on the mainland. The city is well supplied with necessaries and even luxuries, though it possesses naturally neither soil nor fresh water. The houses are built on spiles driven deep in the mud. It has now several railway communications with other cities, &c. The prosperity which Venice enjoyed as a republic rapidly declined after 1797 ; but in 1830 it was declared a free port, since which period, though in no remarkable degree, its commerce has gradually revived ; and if the system of railways projected be executed, Venice must necessarily become a central depôt for the trade of Switzerland and north eastern Italy generally. The population is about 110,000. Venice is the residence of a Catholic patriarch, an Armenian Bishop, and a Greek Bishop ; and the Viceroy of Lombardy usually spends the winter here. In the vicinity there are a number of old towns and villages, chiefly remarkable, however, in their historical connection, and of little modern importance.

PADUA, 22 miles west by south of Venice, is a large and busy commercial city. Its university has a world-wide celebrity, and ranks as one of the first in Europe. VICENZA has many beautiful buildings, but is chiefly noted for its industrious population, which is largely engaged in the silk manufactures. VERONA, on the Adige, is adorned with many fine ancient and modern buildings, among which may be mentioned a Roman amphitheatre still perfect. Placed near the gorges of the Tyrol, and the defile of the Adige, and commanding that river by its four stone bridges ; and situated between the gorges of the Chiusa and the heights of Caldiero, and supported by the fortresses of Mantua, Peschiera, and Legnano, Verona has always been a most important military position, and its proper fortification has claimed unremitting attention on the part of the Austrians. It



is also noted for its fine dyeing establishments; and carries on a great trade in silk thread, both for sewing and weaving, which is spun by a great number of water mills. **ROVIGO**, formerly the capital of **Polesina**, is an ancient city, celebrated, in the palmy days of ancient Rome, for its commerce and manufactures. **TREVISO**, **BELLUNO**, **UDINO**, &c., are important cities.

The greater part of this portion of Italy, after the fall of the Western Empire, was successively possessed by the Heruli, Ostrogoths, Greeks, and Lombards. In 774, Charlemagne annexed it to the empire of the Franks. From 888 it generally belonged to the Germans, until the erection of the Republic of Milan, in 1150. In 1395, it became a Duchy, and in 1535, came into the possession of the Emperor Charles V. After the wars of the Spanish succession Mantua and Milan were assigned to Austria, to which they have since belonged, with the exception of the short time they formed a part of the Cisalpine Republic and French Empire. Venice and its territory, which had existed as an aristocratic republic from the 7th century to 1797, was confirmed to Austria by the treaty of Vienna, in 1815.

#### THE DUCHY OF PARMA.

THIS small state is situated in Lombardy, to the south of the Po, between Sardinia on the west, and Modena on the east. It consists of the several ancient duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, and was formed into a sovereignty in 1815, in favor of Maria Louisa, the consort of Napoleon. Guastalla is separated from the main body of the state by an intervening portion of the Duchy of Modena. On the death of Maria Louisa, in 1848, the Ex-Duke of Lucca succeeded to the throne.

**PARMA**, the capital, is a large and handsome city on the river of the same name, and has about 30,000 inhabitants. It has a handsome cathedral, the dome of which is painted in fresco by Correggio. The church of La Madonna della Steccato is the great attraction of the place. **PLACENTIA**, (Piacenza,) near the right bank of the Po, is a well-built episcopal city, with a ducal palace, cathedral, and a citadel occupied by Austrian troops. Population, 28,000. **BORGIO SAN DONINO** is a city with 5,000 inhabitants. **GUASTALLA** is a fortified city, with 6,000 inhabitants, near the right bank of the Po, north-east from Parma. **FIORENZUOLA** is noted chiefly for the late discovery in its vicinity of the ruins of the ancient "Velleia," which seems to have been suddenly destroyed by a volcanic eruption, or by the fall of a mountain, soon after the period of Constantine the Great. It was among these ruins that the famous Trajan table, one of the most important relics of ancient Rome, was found.

#### THE DUCHY OF MODENA.

**MODENA** is situated to the east of Parma, and between that state and the Papal dominions. It extends from the Po to the crest of the Appenines; beyond which the duke also possesses Massa and Carrara, lying between two portions of Tuscany, and reaching to the Gulf of Genoa.

**MODENA**, the capital, lies between the Secchia and the Panaro. The ducal palace is a magnificent structure, and as richly furnished. The

cathedral, churches, university, and a number of other public buildings, ornament the city. Population, 27,000. The other important places in the state are :—Reggio, with 18,000 inhabitants; Massa, with 7,000; Carrara, a small place noted for its marbles; Mirandola, a busy, fortified town, with 6,000 inhabitants; Finale, with 6,000; Carpi, with 6,000; Castelnovo, with 3,000; Sassuolo, Rubiera, Novallora, Canossa, and Correggio, the last of which was the birth place of the celebrated painter Allegri.

### THE GRAND DUCHY OF TUSCANY.

THIS large state is situated in Middle Italy, extending from the coast almost entirely to the west of the crest of the Apennines, and is bounded on the north by Parma and Modena, and on the east and south by the Papal States. Elba, and several other islands in the Mediterranean belong to Tuscany. The territory contains 8,381 square miles, or 5,365,120 acres, which are thus occupied :—in the cultivation of the vine, 570,000; vine and olive, 390,000; arable, 840,000; woods, 1,400,000; chestnuts, 305,000; natural and artificial meadows, 70,000; pastures, 1,600,000; various smaller products, 70,000; building, 26,000—the small remainder being unemployed and not subject to taxation. The population amounts to about 1,600,000, or 190 to the square mile. The army consists of from 7,000 to 8,000 men, who are levied by a sort of conscription, and serve for six years. The Grand Duke is an Austrian; but the policy of the government has long been distinguished for its liberality and efficiency. Education is much neglected, and the only institutions of note are the universities of Pisa and Siena. The annual revenue amounts to some 25,000,000 lire, (about \$4,000,000,) produced from the land-tax, customs, salt and tobacco monopolies, lotteries, &c. The public debt is small, and its security unquestioned. The improvements of the Maremma have occasioned much of the extraordinary expenditures.

Tuscany is divided into five “compartimenti,” and these again into “territori-comunitativi.” The following table contains the names and statistics of the compartimenti and the chief cities of each :

<i>Compartimenti.</i>	<i>Area in sq. miles.</i>	<i>Population</i>	<i>Pop. to sq. mile.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
FIRENZE.....	2,160.....	740,000.....	“.....	FLORENCE.
AREZZO.....	1,945.....	365,000.....	“.....	Arezzo.
SIENA.....	465.....	162,000.....	“.....	Siena.
GROSSETTO, (with Gigleo, &c.)..	2,533.....	249,000.....	“.....	Grossetto.
PISA, (with Elba, &c.).....	1,278.....	84 000.....	“.....	Pisa.
Total.....	8,381.....	1,600,000.....	190.....	

FLORENCE, (Firenze la Bella,) the capital, is situated on the Arno, in a delightful valley. It is considered one of the finest cities of the world, and is noted for its antique appearance, and the solidity and beauty of its palaces, churches, and other public edifices. Population, 100,000. In the neighborhood of the city are many villas and country houses, noted for their historical associations. Vallombrosa, Prato, Pistoja, Pescia, Volterra, and Signa, are places of some consideration, within a short distance of Florence. Volterra is noted for its salt works, and Signa may be considered as the centre of the straw-hat manufactures, a handicraft which forms not only a

chief employment to the Tuscans, but which also furnishes an article of commerce to every other country.

PISA, an ancient but now decayed city, the capital of a sovereign republic in the middle ages, and the great rival of Genoa, is situated on the right bank of the Arno, near its mouth. With the exception of its literary institutions and numerous antiquities, Pisa has no modern attractions. Population, 20,000. Some valuable marbles are quarried in the neighborhood.

LEGHORN, (Livorno,) a fine modern city, on the shores of the Mediterranean, is one of the principal commercial towns of Europe, an advantage that it owes to its being a free port, where the productions of all countries can be landed and re-shipped without restriction. One of its quarters is called New Venice, from its being intersected by a number of canals, by means of which goods are brought to the doors of the warehouses. The harbor is entirely artificial, and is formed and defended by a great mole or bulwark, and by strong military works; and outside is the road, formed by sand-banks surrounding the island of Meloria, on which the light-house is built. The city is two miles in circumference, and contains about 80,000 inhabitants, of whom one-fourth are Jews. The great square is spacious, and the Duomo or Cathedral, is a noble building. Leghorn in the 15th century was only an inconsiderable port, and it was not until the middle of the 17th century that its liberality to the Jews, and other strangers, laid the foundation of its modern prosperity, and accomplished the transfer of Tuscan commerce to its port. Its ship-building is extensive, and vessels of war of 60 guns have been built in its slips.

Arezzo, Cortona, Siena, Grossetto, &c. are the other principal towns of Tuscany.

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### THE DUCHY OF LUCCA.

THIS small state now belongs to the Grand Duke of Tuscany, having been transferred in 1847, in compliance with the treaty of 1815. It is a small maritime district, between the north-west of Tuscany and the southern borders of Modena, and was formed into a separate state in 1815, out of the territory of the late Republic of Lucca.

LUCCA, the capital, on the Serchio, in the centre of a plain cultivated like a garden, has 25,000 inhabitants. The fortifications have been razed and converted into fine promenades; and a magnificent aqueduct supplies the city with water. Lucca has a university and several other scientific and literary establishments. The environs abound with elegant villas. VIAREGGIO is a seaport town, with considerable coasting trade, and a population of 5,000. CAMAIORE, on the sea-coast; Borgo-a-Mazzano, on the Serchio, and Corsena on the Lima, are other principal places. In the vicinity of Corsena are situated the "Baths of Lucca," which are much frequented both by natives and strangers.

Tuscany is the Etruria of the ancients. It was conquered by the Romans 280 B. C. After the fall of that empire it successively belonged to the Goths and Lombards, by the last of which it was erected into a duchy. Charlemagne conquered Tuscany, but under his feeble successors its princes made the country independent. In the 12th and 13th centuries Tuscany was partitioned among the famous republics of Florence, Pisa, and Siena; but these were re-united in 1531 into one duchy, under Alex

de Medici, in whose family it remained until its extinction in 1737, when it fell into the hands of the house of Austria. In 1801, Napoleon erected it into the Kingdom of Etruria, in favor of the Prince of Parma; but in 1808 it was incorporated into the French Empire, and subdivided into the departments of Arno, Mediterranean, and Ombrone. Since 1814 it has reverted to Austria, and is now governed by one of the Archdukes. Lucca was purchased in 1847; but whether it is annexed to Tuscany, or remains a distinct sovereignty only governed by the Grand Duke, we cannot learn. The Ex-Duke of Lucca succeeded to Parma, on the death of Maria Louisa in 1848.

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### THE STATES OF THE CHURCH.

THESE States, which constitute the temporal dominions of the Bishops of Rome, occupy the greater part of Central Italy, extending along the Adriatic Sea, from the Po to the northern frontier of Naples; and are bounded on the west by Modena and Tuscany, and on the south by the Mediterranean Sea. The length, from north to south, is 260 miles; the breadth is very various.

The States of the Church compose a mountainous country; the Appenines, which here attain their greatest height, give off many lateral branches, and the few level spots which do exist are interrupted frequently by the vanguards of the central chain of hills. The plain, between the Po, the Appenines, and the Adriatic, resembles the plain of Lombardy; and the "Campagna di Roma" is but a continuation of the Maremma. It exhibits an undulating surface, but is almost destitute of trees; and along the coast pestilential swamps, frequently overflowed by the sea, occur; while the volcanic soil, strongly impregnated with sulphur, sends forth unwholesome vapors. The Mediterranean, which receives the Tiber, the Fiora, the Palidora, and the Amiseno, washes the coast from Montalto to Terracina, and the Adriatic, the reservoir of the Po, the Mentone, the Savio, the Uso, &c., from the Po to Tronto. The only good harbors in the whole extent are those of Civita Vecchia and Ancona. There are several navigable canals, of which those of Bologna, Cento, and Imola, are the most remarkable; and lakes, abounding in fish, are found in several directions. The climate is mild, and the natural heat of the region is tempered by the breezes from the Mediterranean; but the Siricco and the pestilential exhalations of the river bottoms and swamps prove destructive to life, while the volcanic nature of the country tends to the same results.

Agriculture is here in as bad a state as in other parts of Italy. The lands are held by large proprietors, and divided infinitely into small farms, which disinclines the actual possessors from making those improvements a more liberal system would encourage them to undertake. The productions, natural and agricultural, are those peculiar to Central Italy. The fisheries, which would produce a sufficiency, are neglected, and about one million and a half scudi in value of this important article is annually imported, to supply the demand for the 160 fast days of the Catholic Church. Bees are extensively kept, and honey is exported; but still there is not sufficient wax produced to supply the consumption in the form of wax candles, used in the churches. The climate is very favorable for the silk-worm, and the

mulberry is extensively planted. The existing manufactures scarcely supply the home-demand. Silk-weaving is carried on to some extent, and broad-cloths, paper, vitriol, plate, artificial flowers, and stone-ware, enter largely into the list of manufactures. There is no active commerce, and what exists is chiefly carried on by foreigners. The Tiber and the Po are the only navigable rivers; and the roads, with few exceptions, are very bad.

With the exception of a few Jews, and other heretical sects, living at Rome and Ancona, the inhabitants are all Italians, and descendants of those Romans who once governed the whole civilized world. The manliness of their ancestors, however, has been buried in the same tombs which contain their dust, and the modern Romans are effeminate and utterly dependent. They possess, nevertheless, genius, and a fine taste for the arts of polite life, and excel in sculpture, painting, and music. This degeneracy from the martial qualities of their fathers is, no doubt, the result of the influence of religious persecution, and the superstitious terror that pervades the whole body politic. Utter destitution shadows the land, and starvation is only prevented by the charities of the church—charities which its grasping avarice alone has caused to be necessary. Their language is not so pure as that of Florence, but the pronunciation is far more harmonious.

The Catholic Church is established here in its greatest splendor. At the head of the church stands the Pope and the College of Cardinals; and besides there are in the States six archbishops and 72 bishops! Convents, the Inquisition, and the Index Expurgatorius, are here in their element, and the different religious orders are immensely rich. The universities, which formerly counted ten, have been reduced to three, viz.: those of Rome, Bologna, and Perugia. The Propaganda has done much to advance the knowledge of oriental languages; but the countervailing influences of the censorship have retarded all intellectual progress, and limited to a sectary the literature of the country. Schools exist in every part, but still few nations exhibit so meagre an education as the Italians.

The government is an elective monarchy, and, formerly, the Pope, who is nominally head of the state and of the whole Catholic world, exercised, exclusively, both the legislative and executive powers. In 1847, Pius IX. remitted part of his temporal powers to his people, and called together, in pursuance of a constitution he granted, their representatives. This, at the time, was considered a most liberal grant. But this first glow of liberty was too exhilarating, and demands for progression now poured in from the people. There was no retreat for the holy father—he was hurried on by the stream, and daily relaxed his authority, until at length his temporal attributes were all gone, and the Pope, like an inconsiderate spendthrift, cast on the cold charities of the world. It was “too late”—the people had renounced him, and the patrimony of St. Peter had become the “pandemonium of republicanism.” At this juncture the Pope fled, and found refuge at Gaeta, in the Neapolitan territory. All this occurred in less than twelve months. The result is in the womb of the future. The Pope may be restored, but his authority as a temporal prince is fast waning, and must, in the natural course of an expanding political regeneration, soon be among the absurdities that were. His ecclesiastical powers are firmly throned on the “Rock of Ages;” and it is immaterial whether the successors of St. Peter are located in Rome or in the moon; they will ever be respected by the Catholic world. The Roman States are now in the hands of the revo-

lutionists, and all law and order in the utmost dishabille. Under these circumstances, any account of the forms or usages of the government would be futile, and those given to-day would be obsolete to-morrow.

The revenues of the Pope were formerly large, in comparison to the present time. Then the tithes of the whole of Christendom swelled his exchequer. The average annual receipts are now under \$15,000,000, and it is seldom that the disbursements have not exceeded this revenue; and the excess is yearly swelling the amount of the national debt. All attempts to place the financial system on a proper footing have hitherto failed. Of the above-named amount, says Raumer, (*Italy, II.*) "the support of the army engrosses 20, and the interest on the public debt 25, or, according to others, not less than 38 per cent. Into this dilemma the government has been brought chiefly by its solicitude to restore the ecclesiastical and monastic system of former times in its fullest extent, and to compensate all losses sustained during the French occupation. Recourse is had to expensive loans, which scarcely alleviate the pressure for the moment; while the cause of embarrassment remains unabated, and seems likely to lead at last to the dissolution of the state."

The dominions of the Church are divided into 21 provinces: of which that of Rome is styled a "commarca;" that of Loretto, a "commissariato;" and those of Bologna, Ferrara, Ravenna, Forli, Urbino, Pesaro, and Velletri, "legazioni," because they are governed by legates. The delegation of Benevento, and the Territory of Ponte Corvo, are entirely separated from the rest of the dominions, being situated in the northern part of the kingdom of Naples. Ponte-Corvo forms part of the province of Frozinone. The names of the provinces, and their area, population, &c., are stated in the annexed table:

Provinces.	Area in sq. m.	Population.	Pop. to sq. m.	Capitals.
ROMA.....	646.....	300,000.....	".....	ROME.....170,000
VELLETRI.....	636.....	60,000.....	".....	Velletri.....10,000
FROSINONE.....	895.....	145,000.....	".....	Frosinone.....2,000
BENEVENTO.....	89.....	26,000.....	".....	Benevento.....18,000
CIVITA VECCHIA.....	174.....	21,000.....	".....	Civita Vecchia.....7,000
VITERBO.....	1,656.....	118,000.....	".....	Viterbo.....13,000
ORVIETO.....		26,000.....	".....	Orvieto.....8,000
RIETI.....	660.....	63,000.....	".....	Rieti.....12,000
SPOLETO.....	1,362.....	123,000.....	".....	Spoletto.....7,000
PERUGIA.....	1,727.....	203,000.....	".....	Perugia.....30,000
CAMERINO.....	392.....	38,000.....	".....	Camerino.....7,000
MACERATA.....	1,033.....	228,000.....	".....	Macerata.....12,000
FERMO.....	567.....	92,000.....	".....	Fermo.....7,000
ASCOLI.....	477.....	80,000.....	".....	Ascoli.....12,000
LORETO.....	?	8,000.....	".....	Loreto.....8,000
ANCONA.....	641.....	164,000.....	".....	Ancona.....24,000
URBINO E PESARO.....	1,685.....	232,000.....	".....	Urbino.....
FORLI.....	1,187.....	199,000.....	".....	Forli.....
RAVENNA.....	901.....	163,000.....	".....	Ravenna.....16,000
BOLOGNA.....	1,425.....	334,000.....	".....	Bologna.....71,000
FERRARA.....	1,065.....	218,000.....	".....	Ferrara.....24,000
Total.....	17,218.....	2,846,000.....	165.3	

ROMA, (ROME,) the capital of these states, is situated on the banks of the Tiber, partly on a plain, and partly on low hills, with their intervening valleys, about 16 miles from the mouth of the Tiber, and between 50 and 60

\* The Pope has since been restored by a French, Austrian, and Spanish intervention.

feet above the level of the sea. The city is divided by the Tiber into two unequal parts, the larger of which, on the left or eastern bank, is Rome, properly so called; the smaller portion, on the right bank, is named the Leonine city and Trastevere, and is inhabited by a rude and uncivilized population. The whole city is surrounded by ancient walls, about 15 miles in circuit; but only a part of the inclosed area is occupied by the modern city, which is mostly built upon a plain, (the ancient *Campus Martius*,) lying along the banks of the Tiber, to the north of the seven hills, which formed the site of ancient Rome. Four of the hills are now almost entirely deserted, or are occupied by gardens, vineyards, scattered buildings, and ruins. The streets, though generally spacious, are often winding and ill-kept. Of the numerous public buildings with which Rome is filled, the 364 churches claim our attention. Seven of these are styled *basilicae*, or cathedrals, namely: *San Pietro in Vaticano*, *San Giovanni in Laterano*, *Santa Maria Maggiore*, *San Paolo fuori le mura*, *San Lorenzo*, *San Sebastiano*, and *Santa Maria in Trastevere*. San Pietro, (St. Peter's,) stands on a gentle acclivity in the Leonine city, in the north-western corner of Rome, and is built in the form of a Latin cross, the nave being 607 feet long, and the transept 444. The east front is 396 feet wide, and 160 feet high; the pillars which compose it are each 88 feet in height, and  $8\frac{1}{4}$  in diameter. The height of the dome, from the pavement of the church to the top of the cross which surmounts it, is 448 feet. In front of the church is a fine piazza, consisting of a double circular colonnade, with an Egyptian obelisk in the centre, and forming altogether an architectural display which is very much admired. St. Peter's occupies the site of Nero's circus, and the spot where St. Peter is supposed to have suffered martyrdom. The present church was erected instead of the more ancient one, between the years 1506 and 1780, having occupied in building two centuries and a half, under thirty-five Popes, and cost from fifteen to twenty millions sterling. *San Giovanni in Laterano*, (St. John Lateran,) is the proper church of the Pope himself, who is its official minister, and on that account ranks above all other priests in the Catholic world; it is here also that the Popes are crowned. The church, or some part of it at least, is as old as the time of Constantine the Great. It contains the famous chapel of the Corsini, reckoned the finest in the world, which is said to have cost so much as £400,000. *Santa Maria Maggiore*, (St. Mary the Great,) is noted for the fine colonnades and unbroken entablatures which divide the nave from the aisles, for mosaics of the fifth century, and for the chapels of Sixtus V. and Paul V. *San Paolo fuori le mura*, (St. Paul without the wall,) is situated on the road to Ostia, south of the city, on the spot where the Apostle Paul is supposed to have been beheaded. It was a very ancient structure, but was destroyed by fire in 1824, and is now in the course of being rebuilt. It is, however, in a very unhealthy situation, and but little frequented. The only other church which deserves particular notice is *Santa Maria ad Martires*, or, *the Rotunda*, a large circular building, surmounted by a dome rising 130 feet above the pavement, and terminating with an open window in the centre, by which the church is lighted. The entrance is formed by a magnificent portico of sixteen granite Corinthian columns, each of which is 39 feet high, and its shaft of a single stone. According to an inscription on the entablature of the portico, the building seems to have been erected by Marcus Agrippa, the favorite minister of Augustus; but whether for a Pantheon, (a temple of the gods,) or merely as an entrance hall to his baths, is uncertain. It is now, however, dedica-

ted to St. Mary, and all the saints, who have supplanted the deities of Pagan Rome.

Next to the churches, the palaces attract the attention of the traveller. These are very numerous, and are generally very fine buildings; but sixty of them are such large and ornamental structures as might suffice for sovereign princes, rather than for provincial nobles. Our space permits us to notice only those belonging to the Pope. The *Vatican*, the winter palace of the Pope, stands on the Vatican hill, close by St. Peter's, with which it forms a very inharmonious architectural composition. It is a very large heavy building, said to contain 4,422 halls, chambers, or galleries, and 22 courts; but the apartments are irregularly arranged, and the whole pile is characterized by a want of unity of design. It contains the Pio-Clementine and the Chiaramonti Museums, both filled with the masterpieces of ancient and modern art: among which are particularly distinguished the Apollo Belvidere, the Laocoon, and the Antinous; galleries and halls painted by Raffaele; the Sistine Chapel, which contains the Last Judgment, by Michael Angelo; the Vatican Library, contained in two galleries, as remarkable for their vast extent as for their ornaments, and embracing an immense collection of printed books, with perhaps the richest collection in Europe of rare manuscripts, and numerous pictures and other works of art. The *Quirinal*, another superb palace, on the Quirinal hill, is the Pope's summer residence; the garden attached to it is more than a mile in circuit, and is one of the finest in Italy. It is also named the palace of Monte-Cavallo, from two ancient colossal figures of horses placed there. The *Campidoglio* occupies the site of the ancient Capitol, and contains the palaces of the senator or chief magistrate, and of the conservators or municipal magistrates of Rome, a rich museum of antiquities, and an ancient equestrian statue in bronze of the Emperor Marcus Aurelius.

Rome also contains a great number of scientific and literary establishments, at the head of which may be placed the *Universita Romana della Sapienza*, one of the oldest universities in Europe. Next in importance is the *Roman College*, which may be considered as another university, to which is annexed a fine library, and collections of antiquities, natural history, models of machines, &c. The other principal seminaries are:—the *Collegio de Propaganda fide*, where natives of India, Abyssinia, Syria, Armenia, Greece, China, and other foreign countries, are instructed by professors, for the purpose of preaching the gospel to their benighted countrymen; the *Seminario Romano*; the *Collegio Nazareno*; the English, Irish, Scottish, and seventeen other national colleges, for students from different countries; the deaf and dumb institution; the Ripa-grande institution, where 2,000 children are taught useful arts and trades; the Roman Academy of St. Luke, where painting, sculpture, architecture, perspective, anatomy, history, mythology, and costumes, are taught by ten professors, &c.

Besides the walls which inclose the site of ancient Rome, there are many other remains of the splendid buildings which adorned the "eternal city;" but of these we can do little more than mention the names. The largest and most imposing is the *Flavian Amphitheatre*, or *Colosseum*, (Coliseum,) a very large oval structure, formed externally of three tiers of arches and half columns of different orders, surmounted by a range of Corinthian pilasters without openings. It is said to have been capable, when entire, of containing 100,000 spectators. Half the building has been destroyed, but the remainder is considered as a very grand and imposing structure. The three triumphal arches of Titus, Severus, and Constantine; the two



ornamental columns of Trajan and Antoninus; the Ælian bridge, now called St. Angelo's; ten Egyptian obelisks; the pyramid of Caius Cestius; and the tomb of Cecilia Metella, are still very entire, and are among the finest specimens of the antiquities of Rome. Most of the other remains are merely fragments, as the Cloaca Maxima, or great sewer, said to have been constructed in the time of the Tarquins; the Circus of Caracalla; three columns of the Temple of Jupiter Stator; the Theatre of Marcellus, built by Augustus; the Baths of Titus, Caracalla, and Diocletian; the Temple of Peace, and several others; and the Mausoleum of Augustus. The *Moles Hadriani*, or Tomb of the Emperor Adrian, consisted originally of a large building, ornamented externally with three tiers or ranges of colonnades, forming so many superb galleries, decorated with statues and sculptures, and surmounted by a golden pine-apple; but all these have disappeared, and the naked body of the structure now forms the keep or central tower of the Castle of St. Angelo, where the treasures and records of the Court of Rome are preserved. It serves occasionally as a state prison, and communicates by a subterranean gallery with the Vatican Palace. The magnificent Palace of the Cæsars, on the Palatine Hill, has entirely disappeared, its site being covered by gardens; the Capitol is occupied by modern buildings, and the site of the temple of the Capitoline Jupiter is said to be now covered by the *Church of Santa Maria in Ara Celi*. Of all the stupendous aqueducts of ancient Rome, the ruins of the Martian and the Claudian only remain: the former of which conveyed the water thirty-five, the latter, sixty miles. Rome, however, is still most abundantly supplied with water, brought into it by several Popes, and distributed by means of fountains, in every part of the city, some of which are very ornamental structures.

Rome is divided into 54 parishes; inhabited, in 1846, by 35,988 families, numbering 170,199 souls. The population, in 1800, amounted to 153,000; in 1813, it had fallen to 117,882; but by 1836, it had again increased to 157,368, and is now as above stated. The Jews, Turks, and other heretics, number about 10,000; and the religionists consist of 41 bishops, 1,533 priests of various guages, 2,845 monks, and 1,472 nuns. The proportion of the sexes is about eight males to seven females. It is the boast of the Romans that in no other city is so large a sum devoted to public charity in proportion to the population; but of the great number of benevolent establishments and institutions, many are of doubtful, and even pernicious tendency; and, in spite of the liberality with which the charity is distributed, nowhere is there more mendicity, want, and misery. Besides numerous foundling hospitals, there are thirteen societies for giving dowries to young women on their marriage, and gifts on becoming nuns; and, of 1,400 women annually married, 1,000 receive dowries from the public purse. There are twenty-two establishments for the diseased, the insane, and the convalescent, which, as a whole, can accommodate 4,000 patients. Rome is one of the greatest receptacles for abandoned children, which are brought from distant regions, and even from Naples. Above 2,800 children are annually received by the seven foundling hospitals. The Protestant inhabitants of Rome are now allowed to have a chapel for worship, and to bury their dead in a piece of open ground beside the Pyramid of Caius Cestius. The Campagna di Roma, or country around Rome, is for many miles completely desolate, and a prey to malaria, which sometimes even pervades the seven hills, and penetrates into the streets of the city.

OSTIA, at the mouth of the southern branch of the Tiber, 16 miles from

Rome, formerly the flourishing port of that city, is now almost entirely abandoned on account of malaria; "and of all the wretched places on the coast in the vicinity of Rome, Ostia, in its present state, is one of the most melancholy." At the mouth of the other branch of the river is FIUMICINO, adjoining the remains of the port and docks constructed by the Emperors Claudius and Trajan. It contains a tower, surmounted by a light-house. BENEVENTO, 130 miles E. S. E. of Rome, and 32 N. E. of Naples, an archiepiscopal city, with 18,000 inhabitants, occupies a fine situation, but its streets are narrow and dirty; and its public buildings neither grand nor elegant. It contains, however, a beautiful triumphal arch, erected A. D. 113, in honor of the Emperor Trajan, and still in good preservation; and other Roman remains. The province of Benevento is entirely separated from the rest of the Roman States, and, during the French ascendancy, was formed into a principality in favor of the celebrated Talleyrand; and also PONTO CORVO, another separate territory, belonging to the Pope, in favor of Marshal Bernadotte, lately king of Sweden.

CIVITA VECCHIA, a small episcopal seaport town, with 7,000 inhabitants, is a free port, has a naval arsenal, and considerable trade; 40 miles north-west of Rome. CORNETO, 10 miles north of Civita Vecchia, is noted for the great number of Etruscan antiquities found in its neighborhood. Similar antiquities have also been found at Piano di Voce, (or Vulce,) Ponte-Bodio, Montalto, Canino, and at Civita Turchina, the site of ancient Tarquinii. LORETO, a considerable town, with 8,000 inhabitants, stands on the coast of the Adriatic, 124 miles north north-east of Rome. Its celebrated church of Our Lady is superstitiously believed to contain the *Santa Casa*, or house in which the Virgin Mary dwelt at Nazareth, and which was transported by angels to this place! It attracts, of course, great crowds of pilgrims, and once contained a large and valuable treasury, the greater part of which has been converted by its guardians to other than pious uses. ANCONA, an episcopal city, built in the form of an amphitheatre, on the slopes of two hills, which rise from the shore of the Adriatic, 132 miles north north-east of Rome, is a busy commercial town, with a citadel, a fine quay, and a harbor formed by a pier 2,000 feet in length, 100 in breadth, and 65 above the water, and having at its extremity a light-house with a revolving light. Population, 24,000, many of whom are Jews, Greeks, and Moslems. Its manufactures consist principally of wax, tallow, silk hats, and paper. The harbor is well-adapted for building and repairing ships; and, being a free port, is frequented by traders of all nations. RAVENNA, an archiepiscopal city, between the Montone and the Ronco, 175 miles north of Rome, adjoins some large marshes, which render the air unwholesome. It is a place of great historical celebrity, but is now very much decayed, and contains only about 16,000 inhabitants.

BOLOGNA, a large archiepiscopal city, with an industrious commercial population, is situated on a canal, between the Reno and the Savena, in the midst of a fine country covered with elegant houses and villages. It is a well-built town, adorned with a number of fine buildings, and has always been distinguished for its important literary and scientific institutions; the principal of which are, the university, one of the most ancient in Europe; the botanic garden; the institute, a magnificent establishment, with rich collections of books, and objects of chemical, anatomical, and physical science, &c. Population, 71,000.

FERRARA, a large and fortified archiepiscopal city, on a branch of the Po, and a canal, which connects that river with the Maestro. It contains

a university, a public library, a large, strong, and regular citadel, and 24,000 inhabitants. The city occupies an unwholesome situation, in a flat marshy country, 30 feet lower than the surface level of the Po, which is prevented by dykes from overflowing it.

Rome was the nucleus of that great empire which spread itself over the whole ancient world, and the present dominions of the Pope were held by the successors of the Cæsars until the downfall of the Western empire. One Romulus was the first monarch of Rome, and another Romulus the last; the first began his reign 750 years before the Christian era, and the latter was driven out by Odoacer, chief of the Heruli, in 476 after Christ. The popes did not acquire temporal power until the middle of the eighth century.

When Narses, the general of Justinian, had conquered the Goths and their allies in 552, the central part of Italy was treated like a conquered province of the eastern empire, and governed by an officer who had the title of Exarch, and held his court at Ravenna. Aistolph, king of the Langobards, conquered Ravenna and the whole of the Exarchate; but was forced by king Pepin, in 755, to relinquish it to Stephen, bishop of Rome. This donation was renewed by Charlemagne in 774. The policy of the popes in favoring the Normans in Lower Italy, procured them the protection of these warriors, and under Gregory VII. in 1075, the power of the popes reached its greatest height. The crusades in 1096 favored the plans of the Roman see, of which the power was also increased by the inheritance of the territory of the Countess Matilda of Tuscany. To oppose the House of Hohenstaufen in Italy, the Pope called the House of Anjou to the throne of Naples in 1265. Internal convulsions excited by the boundless ambition of the popes and their vicious lives, forced them to transfer their court from Rome to Avignon, where it remained from 1360 to 1378. Avignon had been bought by Clement VI. from Joanna, Queen of Naples and Countess of Provence. The popes while at Avignon being wholly under the influence of the kings of France were scarcely recognised by the Romans and Germans; but in 1378 the papal see was again re-established in Rome. The greatest Pope of the 16th century was Leo X., who was elected in 1513. Julius II. acquired Bologna in 1513, and Ancona in 1532. Ravenna was taken from the Venetians; Ferrara, in 1598, from Modena; and the last Duke of Urbino left his States in 1626 to the Pope. The temporal and spiritual power of the popes had now reached its highest pitch, and began to decline gradually. Sextus V. by his politic administration retarded for a while the decay of the power of the popedom; but the prodigality and the follies of his successors produced new evils, and fresh civil dissensions. Clement XIV., a wise and liberal man, in 1773 abolished the order of the Jesuits. In 1783 Naples freed itself from the feudal obligations it has hitherto held towards the Pope; and the Emperor Joseph II. checked the influence and power of the priests in the Austrian dominions. The victories of the French in Italy forced the Pope to yield, in the peace of Tolentino, Avignon to France, and Romagna, Bologna, and Ferrara to the Cisalpine republic. A movement in Rome against the French in 1797, afforded a pretext for the taking of that city by the French troops, and the leading away of Pius VI. as a prisoner to France. Pius VII. was enabled by the Austrians to resume possession of Rome on the 14th of March, 1800. By the concordat made with the consul Bonaparte in 1801, the Pope again lost part of his worldly power. In 1807 new disputes with France arose, in consequence of which Ancona, Urbino

Macerata, and Camerino were incorporated with the kingdom of Italy; and in 1809 the whole papal dominions were seized, and partly incorporated with France. A revenue of 2,000,000 of francs were assigned to the Pope, who was compelled to take up his residence in France, until the events of 1814 allowed his holiness to resume possession of the States of the Church.

In 1848 the spirit of revolution sprung up among the Romans, in common with the whole of Europe, and the Pope, Pius IX., a man of good intentions, but wholly too weak to cope with the tumults of such a period, gave way to the popular clamor. He had previously granted a constitution to his states; but he had granted too much to admit of a retrograde motion, and too little to satisfy the republican spirit which animated the people. The consequence was, that he was obliged to flee from his possessions and leave his government in the hands of the mob. He is now at Gaeta, and it is possible that the final overthrow of the temporal power of the popes of Rome may already have been encompassed.

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### THE REPUBLIC OF SAN MARINO.

THE territory of this small state, enclosed on all sides by the legation of Urbino, in the Papal states, consists of a craggy mountain about 2,200 feet high, and some adjacent hillocks, with one town and four villages. It is remarkable on two accounts: it is a republic surrounded by the worst forms of despotism, and it is the smallest as well as the most ancient state in Europe. Area 21 square miles. Population, 7,500.

The legislative powers of government are vested in a council of 60 members, elected for life, and taken in equal numbers from the nobles, citizens, and agriculturists; and in a senate, or tribunal of appeal, consisting of 12 members. The executive is entrusted to two "Capitani reggenti," chosen every six months by the inhabitants at large—they preside in the council of sixty. Justice is administered by a "Commissario." Every family is obliged to furnish to the army an individual capable of bearing arms, amounting in all to 800 or 900 men; but only about 40 soldiers are ordinarily kept on duty. The state supports a hospital, and four superior and two elementary schools.

SAN MARINO, the capital, stands on the side of the mountain above mentioned. Population, 5,500. It is accessible by only one road, and is irregularly built. It has a principal square, in which is the town hall; five churches, in one of which are the tomb and statue of San Marino, the founder of the town; four convents, and three castles. Its inhabitants are chiefly employed in agriculture and cattle breeding, and in the manufacture of silk. At the foot of the hill is the village of Borgo, at which many of the wealthy Marinos reside.

The town of San Marino grew up round a hermitage formed here by Marinus, or Marino, a native of Dalmatia, afterwards enrolled in the calendar as a saint, in the fifth century. The people have since maintained their independence, but, perhaps, more in consequence of the insignificance of their territory than from any native pre-eminence in wisdom or valor. It has been several times captured by different adventurers, but the popes have always seen fit to restore it to its owners and its ancient privileges. In 1796 Napoleon offered to increase the territory of the republic; but this

being wisely declined, he presented them with four pieces of cannon. It is under the protection of the Pope.

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### THE KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES.

THE Kingdom of Naples, or the Two Sicilies, consists of the continental territory of Naples and the Island of Sicily. The continental portion is bounded by the Papal dominions on the N. and N. W., and on all the other sides by the ocean, being separated from Sicily by the Strait of Messina. From the Tronto to Cape Leuco is 230 miles, but to Cape Spartivento it measures 360 miles. Its greatest breadth is 120 miles, in many places 80, and in some only 25 and 20 miles. The superficies is 31,407 square miles. The two great divisions of the kingdom are distinguished as the "Domini al di qua del Faro" (Naples,) and the "Domini al di la del Faro" (Sicily.)

#### NAPLES.

The Kingdom of Naples lies under the mildest sky of Europe—occupies the most happy situation—and has the richest and most fertile soil. The Appenines, in the north-west, run into Naples as far as the district of Rapollo, where the ridges divide into two branches, the one directing to and terminating at Cape Leuco, and the other to Cape Spartivento. From the main ridge side branches diverge in several directions, partly connected with the principal chain, and partly forming separate groups: among the former are the chains of Sorrento and Cenide—among the latter the mountains of Gargavo, in Puglia, which cover a surface of 600 geographical square miles, the Monte Barbaro, and Mount Vesuvius near Naples, and the Volture in Puglia. The geology of these are not well known, but their basis is generally granite and calcareous rock: the latter is predominant in the neighborhood of Naples. The Volcano (Vesuvius,) rises in a pyramidal form from the large plain which runs from Capua to its foot, and is separated by deep valleys from the mountains Ottajano and Somma, which seem to have formerly belonged to the same mass. On the summit is a large plain, in the midst of which lies the crater, from which rises a continual smoke, and which often bursts out into dreadful eruptions. The most remarkable of these eruptions were those of A. D. 79, by which Herculaneum and Pompeii were destroyed, of A. D. 203, 472, 512, 685, 993, 1036, 1306, 1631, and 1730, when the summit of the mountain rose considerably higher and became more pointed, and those of 1760 and 1779. Indeed its activity seems to be on the increase, and its eruptions have become more frequent. The foot of the mountain is populous, and its sides are covered with vines and fruit trees. The magnificent plain of Capua lies over subterranean fires, and owes its fertility to the volcanic nature of the soil. The steam baths, the sulphurous lakes and grottoes, in this volcanic region, are remarkable.

The seas which wash the coasts form several considerable gulfs. All the rivers descend from the Appenines, which run almost through the middle of the country, and have consequently but short courses. The principal are the Garigliano, the Volturno, the Silaro, and the Crati. There are no canals except a few for the purposes of irrigation. Lakes are numerous, but there is only one of considerable size, the Lago di Cellano or Fucino, in Abruzzo, which is about 15 miles long, and 9 broad, and which receives

three small rivers, but has no visible outlet. There are numerous mineral springs.

A perpetual spring seems to reign in this beautiful region. The winter is scarcely ever so cold as a New England autumn, and vegetation is never interrupted. In the midst of winter, indeed, the fields are green, the orange trees in flower, the balmy air filled with fragrance, and the sea ever reflects a blue sky; but in the summer days the sun consumes all vegetable life, the heated breeze comes laden with the fiery breath of Africa, and conveys no refreshing dews to the relief of exhausted nature. In the mountain region the weather is colder, and the lofty summits retain for a long period of the year their snowy caps. Some districts are affected with malaria, and a great part of Puglia is a desert, on which, during winter only, innumerable flocks of sheep are fed. The productions are as abundant as they are various and valuable. Corn of all kinds, vegetables and fruit, vines, olives, medicinal plants, &c., are everywhere raised. The animal kingdom is also well represented, and the fisheries are valuable. Vipers, serpents, and tarantulas infest the plain country.

The total population of Naples amounts to 6,123,000. The people have the same characteristics of the Italians, generally: they are lively, cheerful, and witty, but oppressed by the nobility and clergy. The dialect is somewhat like that of Tuscany. The Neapolitans are accused of being very avaricious and lazy. The lower classes are in the profoundest ignorance, but the mountaineers and the Calabrians exhibit more activity and resolution than the rest, especially when acting as banditti. The "lazzaroni" of the cities are a distinguished class, and in many of their points resemble the "loafers" of New-York: the chief difference being that the first are satisfied with a few slices of melon or a little macaroni, while the latter cannot exist without repeated "drinks;" the one eschews drunkenness—the other eschews sobriety, but both are lazy, lousy, and light-fingered. The dress of the lower classes is miserable, but picturesque: it principally consists of a brown cloak thrown over the shoulders in graceful folds. The higher classes dress in the French fashion. The Arnauts, who live in Calabria, Basilicata, and some other provinces, are a fine race of men. Their language is the modern Greek, with a mixture of Latin, Italian, French, and Slavonian words; they rarely intermarry with the Italians. Their priests are called Calojeri, and are allowed to marry.

The Roman Catholic religion is professed by nine-tenths of the people, but considerable toleration is allowed to seceders. No inquisition was ever established in Naples, and no bull of the Pope can be published without the royal assent. The king himself is head of the Neapolitan Church, and has the title of "Beatissimo Padre." There are in the kingdom 27,612 secular priests, 8,455 monks, and 8,155 nuns: total in holy order, 44,222, or one to every 140 of the population.

The sciences and arts are in a most miserable state throughout the kingdom. There are no schools for the lower classes, and the few schools that do exist are in the hands of an ignorant clergy. The university of Naples is a respectable establishment, having a large library and numerous professors. The book trade is miserable, and the greater part of the works issued are on theology, antiquities, and the fine arts. There are no newspapers worth reading, all being published under the strictest censorship.

The government is an hereditary monarchy, and at the present time in

the hands of a branch of the Bourbon family. The monarchy in respect of the continental portion was formerly quite unlimited, while Sicily had a parliament of its own. In 1821, however, a "consulta" was established for each: that for the continental portion consisting of 16 members, and that of Sicily of 8 members, appointed by the king from lists of candidates presented by the intendancies, and presided over by a vice-president, also appointed by the king. The two assemblies frequently met in one, termed the "consulta generale," in which a state minister sat as president. In 1837 these "consulta" were permanently amalgamated into one parliament, which sits at Naples. This body, however, has very limited powers, and must of necessity be subservient to the appointing power. The king is moreover assisted by a cabinet of nine ministers, and a privy council composed principally of nobles.

Each province is governed by an "intendente;" at the head of every "circondario" is a "sub-intendente," and in every commune a syndic or mayor. These officers have only executive powers. Each of the divisions has also a council, variously appointed, but these bodies can only deliberate on such subjects as are presented to their consideration.

Justice is administered by a supreme court of cassation, in the capital; high civil courts at Naples, Aquila, &c.; civil and criminal courts in the provincial capitals, by a judge "d'istruzione" in each district, and by a "consiliatore" in each commune. Judges usually hold their appointments for three years. Trials are public; and the code of laws, as well as the forms, established by the French, have been generally adopted, except, that trials by jury are yet unknown.

There is an indescribable richness of vegetation throughout this country. The corn, wine, and oil produced and exported, turn the balance of commerce completely in favor of Naples. Agriculture, however, is carried on in a most wretched manner, the peasants are poor, and the soil is the property of great landlords, to whom they pay rent, mostly in kind. The peasants live usually on Indian corn and vegetables, reserving their wheat for exportation. The Neapolitans do not understand the cultivation of the vine; nevertheless, the wines of Vesuvius are good, and the oil of Puglia, though inferior to that of Lucca and Genoa, is an article of great demand. Silk is extensively produced, and the wool is of good quality. The fisheries are important. The country does not seem to be rich in metals; while iron is produced in small quantities only. Sulphur and alum form the great staples of the kingdom. Marble, alabaster, lava, puzzolane, and salt, are also wrought.

There are no manufactures of any consequence. Commerce is entirely in the hands of foreign merchants, who import what the country wants, and export what it produces. Though there are several excellent harbors, and the country is most favorably situated, the natives confine themselves to the coasting trade. The articles of export are corn, wine, oil, silk, sulphur, fish, salt, &c. The commerce of the interior is facilitated by fairs and markets; but the roads throughout the kingdom are miserable, and must prove disadvantageous to commercial intercourse.

The kingdom is divided into 15 intendantscies, as stated in the following table :

<i>Intendantscies.</i>	<i>Area in sq. m.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Pop. to sq. m.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>
NAPOLI .....	185 ----	720,000 .....	" .....	NAPOLI (Naples). 350,000
TERRA DI LAVORO ..	2,341 ----	696,000 .....	" .....	Caserta .....
PRINCIPATO CITRA...	2,618 ----	514,000 .....	" .....	Salerno .....
PRINCIPATO ULTRA ..	1,884 ----	382,000 .....	" .....	Avellino .....
MOLISE .....	1,216 ----	345,000 .....	" .....	Campobasso.....
ABRUZZO ULTRA I....	1,120 ----	304,000 .....	" .....	Terama .....
ABRUZZO ULTRA II...	2,195 ----	203,000 .....	" .....	Aquila .....
ABRUZZO CITRA.....	1,687 ----	290,000 .....	" .....	Chieti .....
CAPITANATA .....	3,714 ----	306,000 .....	" .....	Foggia .....
TERRA DI BARI .....	1,711 ----	450,000 .....	" .....	Bari .....
TERRA D'OTRANTO ..	2,669 ----	387,000 .....	" .....	Lecce .....
BASILICATA .....	3,263 ----	488,000 .....	" .....	Potenza .....
CALABRIA CITRA .....	2,522 ----	405,000 .....	" .....	Cosenza .....
CALABRIA ULTRA I ..	1,486 ----	275,000 .....	" .....	Reggio .....
CALABRIA ULTRA II..	1,787 ----	358,000 .....	" .....	Catanzaro .....
Total.....	31,407 .....	6,123,000.....	194.8	

These intendantscies are subdivided into districts, circles, and communes.

NAPOLI, (NAPLES,) the capital of the kingdom, and one of the largest cities in Europe, is situated on the northern shore of a beautiful bay, opening to the west, in N. lat.  $40^{\circ} 50'$ , and E. long.  $14^{\circ} 22'$ ; about 120 S. E. of Rome. Nothing can be more beautiful than Naples when viewed from the bay, rising as it does from the sea on an apothetic slope, crowned with the sombre castle of San Elmo. The city is 9 miles in circumference, and contains about 350,000 inhabitants; but though the buildings are lofty and solid, and some of the streets wide and straight, yet, relatively to its extent and importance, it contains few edifices which can be compared with those of the other great cities of Italy. Its churches, overloaded in the interior with gilding, pictures, and other ornaments, are little remarkable for their dimensions or architecture; and nearly the same may be said of the palaces and other public edifices. The royal palace, the king's ordinary residence, is, however, remarkable for its vast extent, the architecture at its front, its magnificent stairs, and the beauty and richness of its rooms. There is another royal palace on the Capo di Monte, overlooking the city; and a third, named di Chiatamone, remarkable for its delightful situation and its hanging garden. The other principal buildings worthy of notice are: The large edifice of the Studii Publici, or University; the Royal Museo Borbonico, now enriched with antiquities, and a collection of paintings, in a building originally erected for the Studii, which were transferred to the Convent of Gesu Vecchio, in 1790; the Reclusorio, or poor's house; the hospital for incurables, and that of the Annunziata, to which is annexed a well-endowed foundling hospital; the arsenal; the archbishop's palace; the theatre of St. Ferdinand, the finest, in respect of its architecture, of the ten which the city possesses; the Vicario, or Castel Capuano, an old palace, now occupied by the courts of justice; the Theatre of San Carlo, one of the largest and finest in the world; and the palace of the royal ministers, or of the Finances, finished in 1826, and remarkable for its architecture and great size. Among the numerous churches, the only one worthy of particular notice is the new cathedral or church of San Gennaro (Januarius), the patron saint of Naples, whose head, and two small vessels filled with his blood, are preserved in a chapel called El Tesoro. The blood of the saint is



publicly exhibited three times a-year, in May, September, and December, on which occasions it melts in its vase; if the fusion take place quickly, the joy of the people is great; but if there be any unexpected delay, their tears, prayers, and cries are excessive, as the absence of the miracle is supposed to announce some dreadful impending calamity! The principal scientific and literary establishments are: The University; the lyceum del Salvatore; the school of paleography, attached to the general archives of the kingdom; the school of painting and sculpture; the establishment for unrolling and decyphering the MSS. found at Herculanæum; the military college; the military school; the marine academy; the veterinary school; the two great schools for girls, Maracoli and San Marcellino; the two colleges for music, that for males at San Pietro a Majolla, and that for girls at the Concordia; the royal poor's house, where 6000 children are taught arts and trades, at the cost of \$100,000 a-year to the government; the chairs of clinical surgery, midwifery, ophthalmologie, and surgery, attached to the public hospitals; the botanic garden; two observatories; the topographical board; four public libraries, among which is the Borbonica, one of the richest in Europe; the cabinets of mineralogy, natural history, physics, and chemistry; the royal museum of antiquities; the Borbonic academy, divided into the three branches of antiquities, sciences, and fine arts, to the support of which the king assigns an annual revenue of \$120,000; the institute of encouragement; and the societies Pontaniana and Sebezia. The fortifications of the city are of little military importance: they consist of five forts or castles, the principal of which are—that of San Elmo, on a hill behind the city, which it completely commands; the Castello del'Ovo, (egg or oval castle,) built on a rock in the sea, and the Castello Nuovo, (new castle,) which contains a triumphal arch, and several other curious objects. The harbor is artificial, being formed by a great mole, which is continually crowded with people, and contains a light-house and a fine well. In a hill, in the northern part of the city, are the catacombs, which served as burial places in the early ages of the church, and which are said to be more extensive than those of Rome and Syracuse. At the south-west corner of the city is the tuffa hill of Posilipo, through which the public road is carried by a gallery or tunnel, 2 mile in length; and at the east end of the gallery is Virgil's tomb.

PuZZUOLI, a small episcopal city, with 8000 inhabitants, stands on the coast, 6 miles W. of Naples, in a delightful situation, where were many villas of the ancient Romans. It contains the remains of an amphitheatre called the Colloseo, nearly as large as that of Rome, the ruins of a temple of the nymphs, and one of Serapis, which has given rise to some interesting speculations among geologists. In the neighborhood are several remarkable curiosities: the Lucrine Lake, the Lake of Avernus, the Lake of Fusaro, noted for its excellent oysters, the Dog's Grotto, the Lake of Agnano, the Solfataro, and the Monte Nuovo. On the west side of the bay, opposite to PuZZuoli, is BAIA, a miserable place, almost deserted, but with a safe harbor, and remarkable in ancient times as the summer retreat of the Roman nobles, of whose villas, temples and tombs it contains numerous remains. To the north of Baia are the ruins of the ancient city of Cumæ, and the Sibyl's Grotto, a tunnel which penetrates to a great depth, but is almost now choked up with rubbish; and to the south the promontory and harbor of MISENO, which was the station of the Roman fleet for the protection of the western part of the Mediterranean. PORTICI, 4 miles S. E. of Naples, at the foot of Vesuvius, is a small town with a royal palace and 5000 inhabitants. Almost contiguous to Portici, is RESINA, a

large village with 9,000 inhabitants, on the site of *Herculanæum*, a Roman town, which was buried under a thick bed of gravel, at the terrible eruption of *Vesuvius* in A. D. 79, and first discovered in 1713. *TORRE DEL ANNUNZIATO*, a town with 9,000 inhabitants, on the coast, 12 miles S. E. of Naples, at the southern base of *Vesuvio*, is noted for its great manufacture of military arms, and for its vicinity to *POMPEII*, an ancient city, which was buried, like *Herculanæum*, in the year 79, and discovered in 1755. A considerable part of the ancient town has been cleared, exhibiting the remains of a forum, and of several fine temples and theatres, besides private houses, baths, and streets, which gives a perfect idea of a Roman city. There are several other towns round the base of *Vesuvius*, as *Torre del Greco*, on the sea shore, with 13,000 inhabitants; *Somma*, with 7,000; *Ottajano*, with 15,000; *Santa Anastasi*, with 6,000. The neighborhood of these towns produces the famous wine known by the name of *Lacrima Christi* (Christ's tears.) *Castelamare*, *Vico*, and *Sorrento*, are three towns on the south-east coast of the bay, opposite Naples. *Castelamare* is an episcopal city, with 15,000 inhabitants, built in a delightful situation, above the ruins of the ancient buried city of *Stabiæ*, from which several manuscripts, statues and paintings have been dug. Near it is *Quisisana*, a small town, with a fine summer palace of the king, and the principal building yard for the royal navy. *SORRENTO* is a small archiepiscopal city with 5,000 inhabitants, in a fine situation, noted for its excellent silk, and for its antiquities.

*CASERTA*, a small town with 5,000 inhabitants, occupies a fine situation, and has a magnificent royal palace, and an aqueduct across the valley of *Maddaloni*, composed of three ranges of arches. The water course, of which it forms a part, is 27 miles long, and is carried through *Mont Garzano* by a remarkable tunnel more than 3,000 feet long. Here is also the Colony of *San Leucio*, founded by King *Ferdinand IV.*, which exhibits, on a small scale, a model of all that is necessary for the education of the people. *GAETA* is a strongly fortified episcopal city, with a harbor, one of the safest and best in Italy, and several remains of antiquity; the inhabitants amount to 14,000, besides the garrison. *Pius IX.* made this his city of refuge in 1848. *CAPUA* is a fortified archiepiscopal city, with a citadel considered one of the keys of the kingdom, on the *Volturno*, 18 miles N. of Naples. In its vicinity are the remains of the ancient capital of *Campania*, among which there is an amphitheatre.

*SALERNO*, an archiepiscopal and commercial city, with 11,000 inhabitants, is situated on the gulf to which it gives its name; it is noted for its ancient school of medicine, and contains a lyceum, and the palace of the Intendant, one of the finest of the provincial government residences in the kingdom. *AMALFI*, a small archiepiscopal city, on the rocky coast west of Salerno, with about 3,000 inhabitants, acted a distinguished part in the middle ages, by its numerous commercial navy, with which its citizens traded to all parts of the then known world. It was here that a copy of the *Pandects* was discovered in the 12th century, that the mariner's compass was invented, or at least perfected, and that the order of the *Knights of St. John of Rhodes* and *Malta* originated.

*REGGIO*, an archiepiscopal city, on the Straits of *Messina*, is the capital of *Calabria Ultra I.*, with a civil and criminal tribunal, a royal college, and a considerable public library. It is considered the wealthiest provincial city of the continental part of the kingdom, for which it is indebted to the commercial activity of its citizens. Population, 17,000. *GERACE* is a small

episcopal city, with 3,000 inhabitants; in the vicinity of which are thermal springs, and the ruins of the ancient Locri. *SCILLA*, a small place representing the ancient Scylla, so noted for its danger to those sailing through the Strait of Messina.

At a very early period Naples was occupied by Greek colonists. It received from this circumstance the appellation of *Magna Græcia*. Soon after the war with Pyrrhus it was wholly subjugated by the Romans, and formed a most valuable portion of their empire. In modern times it has undergone many vicissitudes. It was united to Spain in the early part of the 16th century, and continued, as an appanage of that kingdom, governed by viceroys, till by the treaty of Utrecht it was ceded to Austria. In 1734 it was erected into an independent monarchy, under Don Carlos, of Spain, who took the name of Charles III. It continued under the Bourbon dynasty until 1798, when it was overrun by the French, who held it until 1815, when the Bourbons were again restored.

These circumstances account, in part at least, for the degraded character of the Neapolitans. Down to the invasion of the French they had groaned under a succession of tyrannical or imbecile rulers; and with such a government, with the feudal system in full vigor, a servile and ignorant nobility, a priesthood always ready to protect and absolve every scoundrel who had money and power, it would have been a wonder had the people not become as worthless as corrupt, and as degraded as their rulers. Had the government of the French been continued for half a century, the regeneration of the country might have been effected. But Naples has again become the prey of dotage and imbecility, and until a new order of things shall be introduced, a vigorous government established, and the oppressive restrictions on foreign trade, and on the circulation of books and papers, have been abolished, it would be idle to expect any material improvement in the condition or character of the people. Perhaps, however, the events of 1848 may have enlightened the policy of his majesty, and shown him that he is powerless before an excited multitude. Indeed, it is not yet certain, that from the wickedness of his government, the king has not lost his dominion over the fine island of Sicily.

#### SICILY.

This lovely island is situated in the Mediterranean Sea, adjoining the south-western extremity of Italy, from which it is separated by the narrow Strait of Messina. Its greatest length is about 190 miles, and its greatest breadth about 106, the superficial area being 10,508 square miles.

The island is studded with mountains; the principal range of which extends in the direction of east and west, nearly parallel to the north coast, from the Strait of Messina to the western point, with a branch which starts off near the middle of the island, and stretches to the south-east, terminating at Cape Passaro. Among these mountains, and sometimes on their very tops, are plains of moderate extent, some of which are nearly 1000 feet above the level of the sea. The predominating rocks are the tertiary, secondary, and volcanic; the other formations being less abundant. Above these are marls and lime-stone, which are again overlaid by a conglomerate containing shells of species still existing in the Mediterranean, with a superincumbent deposit of bone breccia. Above these is a diluvial deposit, of which there are two kinds, the oldest occupying considerable heights, the newer covering the bottoms of the valleys. The tertiary rocks, so abundant in the island,

contain beds of common salt, sulphur, gypsum, alum, and beautifully crystallized sulphate of strontites. On the eastern coast, from a base of eighty miles in circumference, rises the gigantic volcanic cone of Mongibello (*Ætna*,) to the height of 10,870 feet. *Ætna* has been an active volcano since the dawn of history; and its huge mass seems to be entirely composed of volcanic matter. Its base exhibits all the fruit trees peculiar to the transition zone, rich corn fields intermixed with vineyards and olive groves and orange trees, producing altogether a variety of foliage, such, perhaps, as cannot be seen in any other part of Europe. Higher up is the forest region, containing the oak, the beech, the ash, horse chesnuts in the greatest abundance, and plum trees; and still higher are woods of birch, which are scanty on the southern side but very numerous on the north. Beyond the birches every thing green disappears, and the only shrub is the *bivona*. Above all these is the region of bare lava and snow, in the midst of which the sulphur cone rises with a very steep ascent to the full height of *Vesuvius*, or about 3,000 feet. The top of the crater is above two miles in circumference, and, when quiescent, several hundred feet deep, pouring forth sulphureous vapor from thousands of small openings. The only perpetual snow, however, occurs in shaded crevices, above the height of 9,000 feet. Sicily is not rich in metals; the mountains to the north-west of *Taormina* present traces of a gold mine said to have been worked at a very remote period; mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron are also mentioned. Beds of sulphur occur abundantly in the blue tertiary clay, from which Europe has long been supplied with that mineral. The blue clay also contains beds of rock salt.

The climate of Sicily is very much the same as that of Calabria; its summers are very hot, while, on the contrary, frost is scarcely known in winter. The natural vegetable productions, and the objects of agricultural industry, are likewise nearly the same. The wheat of Sicily is reckoned the finest in Europe; the vine is also extensively cultivated, and produces in some places excellent wine. The sugar cane, the custard apple, and the date, are cultivated; and the enclosures are surrounded by the American aloe, which forms an impenetrable fence. By the side of the plane, the poplar, and the willow, grow the cactus tuna, or prickly fig, the orange, the citron, the olive, the myrtle, the laurel, the carob tree, and the pomegranate; while *arbutus* and *tamarisk* abound upon the coast. Sicily was in ancient times the granary of Rome, and still possesses the same fertile soil, and the same capability of abundant productiveness; but the system of rural and political economy in the island is such, that it sometimes does not produce corn sufficient for the consumption of its own inhabitants.

Wild animals are very scarce, and even sheep are almost unknown; hares and rabbits are now almost the only native quadrupeds to be met with; but, to compensate this deficiency, there are vast flocks of water-fowl in the marshes. The African flamingo is not uncommon in the marshes of *Syracuse*, and the pelican is also an occasional visitor. The purple heron, the night heron, the little bittern, the long-legged plover, the glossy ibis, the pratincole, and several other rare European species, are also among the common migratory visitors. Insects are numerous; and flights of locusts have occasionally afflicted the island. The most destructive invasion of these insects appears to have happened in the beginning of last century, when they spread devastation and ruin over the island during a period of five years.

The Sicilians partake of the general character of their Neapolitan neigh-

bors, profess the same religion, with the concomitant characteristics of ignorance and superstition, and are subject to the same ruling power. The despotic character of the government, together with the exorbitant feudal privileges of the grandees, have reduced the body of the people to the lowest state of penury; while the want of roads, or the badness of those that exist, prevents much internal communication or trade. Sicily, however, produces some wines that are esteemed by foreigners; the raw silk of the island is also fine; and these articles, with olive oil, fruits, sulphur, and salt, afford materials for exportation. In return she receives manufactured goods in great variety, though in small quantities, on account of the prevailing poverty of the people, who cannot afford to purchase anything beyond the coarsest articles of furniture and clothing.

Primary and secondary schools figure in every commune; colleges and academies are established in twenty-one towns, and in the two universities of Palermo and Catania, are 81 professors, and about 1,250 students. There are, besides Jesuit schools, three episcopal academies for divinity students, and boarding schools at Palermo for the gentry. Females belonging to families of distinction are educated in convents; but with all these means, the people, from the highest to the lowest, are, with few exceptions, remarkably ignorant. The island contains three archbishops and ten bishops, with priests in every commune. The church is chiefly maintained by revenues from landed estates; but the priests are paid by the communes. There are 660 monasteries, belonging to twenty-one or twenty-two orders; and the number of monks has been stated to amount to from 12,000 to 15,000.

Agriculture, pasturage, fisheries, the sulphur mines, and a few manufactures, form the principal occupations of the people. The lands chiefly belong to the nobility; but, as estates are now divided by law among the children, instead of going, as formerly, to the eldest son, the princely incomes once enjoyed by some of the nobles have dwindled away to a third or a fourth; and, in the course of time, their estates will be frittered down to very small possessions. Owing to the oppressive amount of the land-tax, many fertile tracts remain uncultivated. Sicily is the only European country where we find numerous modern ruins, consisting of whole towns, which have ceased to be inhabited within the last century. Over the whole island the art and implements of agriculture, and the dwellings of the people, are in the most wretched condition. Indeed, were it not for the fruit of the Indian fig, which grows wild and in abundance, the agricultural produce of Sicily, once the granary of Rome, would not probably maintain two-thirds of its diminished population. It produces, however, good crops of wheat, barley, beans, tobacco, cotton, hemp, flax, &c., with scarcely more culture than scratching the surface of the ground to admit the seed. With few exceptions, the horses, mules and asses are small and ill made; the Tunisian or reddish brown breed of cattle are large, strong, finely formed, and have generally long horns; the native or black breed are much smaller. There are many large and fine flocks of merino sheep; but the native breed is small and yields coarse wool. The goats are a tolerably good breed, and their hair is made into cloth. The swine are of a very inferior description. With the exception of the vine, a great deterioration appears to have taken place in the cultivation of fruit; the best olive trees are those which were planted many centuries ago by the Saracens. The oranges and citrons are delicious, and are collected with more than usual care. The forests have nearly disappeared; the woody

region of Etna, and the woods of Caronia, on the northern mountains, consist chiefly of various kinds of large oak, elm, firs, and ash. The wines of Marsala, Mazzara, and the adjoining districts, are those chiefly exported. This wine is produced from a mixture of black and white grapes, to the amount annually of 30,000 pipes, of which from 18 to 20,000 are exported. Sicily produces silk in small quantities, to the extent of only about 400,000 lbs. a year; the greater part of which is manufactured into ordinary silk stuffs at Catania. Cotton is cultivated in small patches, but very negligently; and scarcely enters into the exports. Dye stuffs, barilla, honey, liquorice, and many other articles might be cultivated to a great and profitable extent; but these are all totally neglected.

Sicily forms a portion of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies. For administrative purposes it is divided into valli or intendancies, districts, and communes, corresponding to departments, arrondissements, and communes in France. There is no country which is so highly taxed; nor is there one which derives less benefit from its government. The following table exhibits the names, extent, population, &c., of each of the intendancies:

<i>Intendancies.</i>	<i>Area in sq. m.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Pop. to sq. m.</i>	<i>Chief Cities.</i>
PALERMO.....	1,727....	480,000....	"	PALERMO.....130,000
MESSINA.....	1,473....	315,000....	"	Messina.....85,000
CATANIA.....	1,785....	352,000....	"	Catania.....40,000
SIRAGOSA.....	1,320....	241,000....	"	Syracuse.....14,000
CALTANISSETTA.....	1,532....	170,000....	"	Caltanissetta.....16,000
GIRGENTI.....	1,621....	228,000....	"	Girgenti.....15,000
TRAPANI.....	1,047....	178,000....	"	Trapani.....24,000
Total.....	10,508....	1,964,000....	186	

PALERMO, the capital of Sicily, is a large and fine archiepiscopal city, agreeably situated on the northern coast, in a luxuriantly fertile and well-cultivated plain, named La Conca d'Oro (the golden shell,) which is enclosed on three sides by mountains, and opens on the north to a spacious bay. The houses are all flat-topped, and, instead of windows, have balconies with glass doors; the streets are all well laid out, and almost all terminate at two of the principal thoroughfares. Several fine public buildings, seven squares, and fine walks, the best of which is the marima, lying along the shore, a university, and several other literary establishments, an active commerce, and 139,000 inhabitants, entitle Palermo to rank among the principal cities of Europe. The fête of St. Rosalia attracts every year in July an immense crowd of people from all parts of the island, and gives a great stimulus to the trade of the city, which is otherwise very considerable.

MESSINA, a large and fine episcopal city, with an industrious and commercial population of 85,000, possesses the finest harbor in the kingdom, and one of the best in Europe, and occupies a delightful situation on the west side of the strait to which it gives its name. The city has been rebuilt since 1783, when it was almost entirely destroyed by an earthquake. It has a citadel, and is otherwise strongly fortified; and its environs are the most densely inhabited, and the best cultivated part of the island. The exports are oil, currants, raisins, wine, almonds, lemons, sumach, and other produce of the island. CATANIA, a large archiepiscopal city, with wide and straight streets, and a good harbor on the eastern coast, stands at the foot of Mount Etna. It has suffered severely from earthquakes, but nevertheless still contains the remains of an amphitheatre, larger than the Colosseum at Rome, and other Roman antiquities. It contains a university, a lyceum, a

public library, a museum, and other literary establishments. The silk stuffs of Catania rival the best in the kingdom; the population amounts to about 40,000. **BRONTE** gave the title of duke to the celebrated Lord Nelson, but his estate, to which the title was attached, has been, since his death, completely destroyed by the eruptions of Etna, at whose base it is situated. **SIRAGOSA**, (Syracuse,) a fortified episcopal city on the east coast, with 14,000 inhabitants, a large natural harbor, a royal college, two seminaries, a library, and a museum, stands amidst the ruins of the ancient *Syracusa*, which cover a space of 20 miles in circumference, and of whose five magnificent and populous districts, the small island of *Ortygia* is the only one now inhabited. Its harbor, formerly one of the finest in the Mediterranean, was long believed to be so choked with sand as only to admit chebecks or brigantines, till Lord Nelson proved the contrary, in 1798, by sailing right into it with his ships of war and frigates, and finding excellent anchorage. The celebrated fountain of *Arethusa*, which flows through the town in a stream 4 feet deep, has become turbid and muddy, and is now used for washing the clothes of the citizens. **AGOSTA**, the ancient *Augusta*, to the north of Syracuse, is a fortified city, in a delightful situation, with a harbor and 10,000 inhabitants.

**GIRGENTI**, an irregularly built city, on the south-west coast, is situated on a hill, 1,100 feet above the sea, not far from the shore, where it has a harbor. It has some fortifications, and about 15,000 inhabitants. In its neighborhood, at *Girgenti Vecchio*, are the remains of *Agrigentum*, consisting of the Temple of Concord almost entire, the Temple of Juno, and the ruins of the Temples of Ceres, Proserpine, Hercules, Apollo, Diana, Castor and Pollux, Esculapius, and the Olympian Jupiter, the last of which was never finished, but was constructed with enormous columns 120 feet high. The pier of the harbor of *Girgenti* has been built from the ruins of these magnificent temples.

**TRAPANI**, a busy commercial fortified town, with a royal college, a tribunal of commerce, and 24,000 inhabitants, is built on a peninsula, at the western extremity of Sicily. Its inhabitants are largely engaged in fishing coral, part of which is carved into necklaces, and exported even to India, by way of Alexandria. The *Trapanese* are also expert carvers in ivory, alabaster, mother-of-pearl, &c. **MARSALA**, a large seaport town, about 20 miles S. by W. of *Trapani*, has a royal college, and 21,000 inhabitants. Its harbor is encumbered by sand, but its celebrated wines furnish an important article of export. There are here six wine establishments, four British and two Sicilian; three of the British are on a large scale, and have from 8,000 to 20,000 pipes in annual deposit; the fourth recently established, only requires time to be equally extensive. The wines have only come into repute since 1802, when they were introduced by Nelson for the use of the British fleet. **CASTEL VETRANO**, 28 miles S. S. E. of *Trapani*, with 13,000 inhabitants, is noted for its coral articles, its alabaster works, and particularly for its vicinity to the remains of the ancient *Selinus*, where are still to be seen enormous heaps of ruins, which the people of the country call the *pilieri de Giganti* (Giant's pillars.) In the midst of a pile of ruins resembling massive rocks, rise several gigantic columns, of the same style of Doric architecture as those of *Segesta* and *Girgenti*; while many others lie in confusion on the ground. **ALCAMO** is an archiepiscopal city, with a royal college, and 18,000 inhabitants, 25 miles west of Palermo. In the neighborhood is the site of the ancient *Ægesta*, called also *Egesta*, *Acesta*, and *Segesta*, where is a temple in very good preservation; but everything else is reduced to a mass of shapeless stones and rubbish.

Sicily was early colonized by the Greeks; and at a subsequent period became the object of contest between the Carthaginians and Romans. It was the first and most valuable acquisition of the latter beyond the limits of Italy. After the fall of the Western empire it was successively held by the Vandals, the Goths and the Greek emperors, till 827, when it was overrun by the Saracens. In 1072 it was taken by the Normans, who established therein the feudal system, and kept possession until the establishment of the Suabian dynasty in 1194. In 1265, Charles of Anjou became master of Sicily; but the massacre planned by John of Procida, known by the name of the "Sicilian Vespers," 29th March, 1282, put an end to the sway of the Angevines. It soon after fell into the hands of Spain, and was governed by viceroys until 1706, when a popular revolution annexed it to Austria. By the peace of Utrecht in 1711, it was ceded to Victor Amadeus of Savoy, who in 1720 was compelled by the emperor Charles VI. to exchange it for Sardinia. In 1734 the Austrians were expelled by the Spaniards, and the infant Don Carlos was crowned king of the Two Sicilies. During the last war it was under the protection of Great Britain, and while Napoleon occupied the continental portion of the kingdom, Palermo was the residence of the Court. An insurrection broke out in 1821, but was speedily suppressed. Another popular rising occurred in 1848, and the island has since been governed by a revolutionary government, and the Sicilian parliament has invited the prince of Sardinia to assume the crown; but it is not yet certain that the people can retain their position, and the prince is wisely silent until assured of success. But however the present affair may terminate, it is certain that great alterations must take place in the government, or the people will again and again arise in their majesty until they crush the hydra that oppresses them.

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## THE BRITISH ISLANDS OF

### MALTA, GOZO, AND COMINO.

THIS group of islands is situated in the Mediterranean sea, between  $35^{\circ} 45'$  and  $36^{\circ} 6'$  north latitude, and  $14^{\circ} 9'$  and  $14^{\circ} 35'$  east longitude, about 63 miles S. W. of Cape Passaro in Sicily, and extends in a line from north-west to south-east, a length of 28 miles, divided by two straits which are separated by Comino, the central island. MALTA, the largest, is of an irregular oval figure, about 16 miles in length by 8 or 9 in breadth, and is composed of calcareous rocks, which slope like an inclined plane from the level of the sea towards the south and east, where they attain the elevation of nearly 200 yards. The surface is composed of small valleys, defiles, and hills, which extend across the breadth of the island. In most places the rock is entirely naked, except where the hand of industry has placed over it a layer of travelled earth, brought originally from Sicily and other places. Gozo, the most northerly, is more elevated than Malta, and is entirely surrounded with perpendicular rocks, the highest of which are to the west and south, where they are very steep. The surface is not so uneven as that of Malta, and is consequently more easily cultivated; the pasture land is good, and great numbers of cattle are fed on it for the use of Malta. The grapes of Gozo are peculiarly fine, and are highly esteemed by the Maltese. Cotton and grain are cultivated with success; the air is particularly salubrious, and the country presents many agreeable prospects. COMINO is a small island, two miles in length, between Malta and Gozo, and partakes



most of the character of the latter. The two channels which it forms have from 12 to 20 fathoms water, and are safely passable by the largest ships in mid-channel, in which, too, there is good anchoring ground of fine sand.

The greater part of the land in Malta is planted with cotton. It also produces wheat, barley, and a grain called *tommon*, which grows in the poorer soils, sometimes mixed with wheat, and sometimes with rye. Both Malta and Gozo produce fruit of exquisite flavour, with excellent roots and very fine odoriferous flowers; cummin, aniseed, loricella, and a lichen which grows on the rocks exposed to the north, and is used for dying an amaranthine color. Gardens are numerous in Malta, especially towards the east, and are generally ornamented with orange and lemon trees; the greatest attention is paid to them, and they are commonly watered twice a-day from cisterns hewn in the rock, with trenches dug round about to collect the rain. Bees are kept in great numbers; the honey is delicious, and remains always liquid. There are numerous asses of a strong breed; the sheep are very prolific, and exceed 12,000 in number. About six or seven thousand bees are also maintained, and five or six thousand horses of all kinds. But, besides the food produced from the soil, there are several hundred boats employed in the fisheries, for the daily supply of the markets. In August and September a fish is caught resembling the dolphin, which is called at Malta the *lampoukeag*. The climate is delightful; the four seasons are regularly defined, and the country is remarkably salubrious.

The Maltese are a mixed race, principally Italian and Arabic. Their language is, like themselves, an Italiano-Arabic dialect, intelligible to the natives of the opposite shore of Africa; but pure Italian is used by the mercantile and higher classes, and English, which is the language of government, is generally understood in some degree by the natives. The Maltese are a robust, active, and temperate people; but, from want of employment, are still very poor, wasting their energies in idleness. Their condition has, however, been greatly improved since they became British subjects, by the opening up of new sources of industry, and some of them have become the best sailors in the Mediterranean. They are bigoted Catholics, and very superstitious and fanatical; but education is spreading, and will by and by modify their character. The population of Malta in 1836 amounted to 106,614, being 1122  $\frac{24}{95}$ ths to the square mile; that of Gozo to 16,534, being 612  $\frac{10}{27}$ ths to the square mile. The commerce of these islands is considerable, but we have no late statistics. The total value of imports in the above year amounted to £685,531, and of exports, £467,942. The shipping inwards, 1,963 vessels, with a burden of 199,500 tons; outwards, 2,083 vessels, burden, 216,267 tons.

The capital of the islands is *CIVITA VALETTA*, on the north-east coast, built upon a tongue of land extending into a bay, so as to form a splendid harbor on each side, where also the projecting points are occupied by towns and forts; the city itself and the suburbs being surrounded by impregnable fortifications, parts of which are cut out of the solid rock. The streets of Valetta are narrow and steep; but it contains some splendid buildings, which still attest the magnificence and the devotion of its former masters, the Knights of St. John, to whom the island was gifted by the Emperor Charles V. after they had lost Rhodes, and was possessed by them till 1798, when they were dispossessed by the French. Valetta surrendered to the British in 1800, after a two years' blockade, and was confirmed to Britain by the peace of 1815. The *CIVITA VECCHIA*, or old town, is situated nearly in the centre of the island, and is called by the natives *Medina* (i. e. the

city;) it is an episcopal see, and contains a large cathedral, besides several other churches. It stands on such high ground, that in a clear day the whole island, and the coasts of Sicily and Africa, may be seen, both at the distance of about sixty miles. The catacombs are very extensive, and of great celebrity. The island contains beside, twenty-two casals or villages. Near the western part of the north coast is the CALLE DE SAN PAULO, or haven where St. Paul is said to have landed after his shipwreck; though some critics consider the island of Meleda on the Dalmatian coast, to be that on which the Apostle was cast. Gozo contains six casals or villages, two castles, and a fortress on a rock of 300 yards in diameter, in the interior of the island.

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## THE EMPIRE OF TURKEY.

(OTTOMAN EMPIRE.)

THE Ottoman Empire, partly in South-Eastern Europe and partly in Western Asia, comprises some of the most celebrated, best situated, and naturally finest provinces of the continents to which they belong. The limits of the empire are not easily defined; inasmuch as it is usually represented as including several extensive countries, that are either substantially or virtually independent. Moldavia, Wallachia, and Servia, in European Turkey, are governed by their own princes or hospadars, and connected with the Porte only by the slenderest ties; though, as some of their fortresses are garrisoned by Ottoman troops, and as they continue to pay tribute to the Porte, they may still, perhaps, be properly included within the wide range of the Turkish dominions. Egypt, however, and the other African territories, that formerly belonged to Turkey, may now be considered completely dismembered; and, but for the interference of England and the other European powers, Syria and Palestine would have been annexed to the dominions of the Pacha of Egypt. Though the whole empire is under the same forms of government, and no distinction made between the Asiatic and European provinces, we must, in conformity with the geographical arrangements heretofore adopted, confine our remarks in the present instance to the European section alone.

European Turkey, in its present restricted limits, exclusive of Greece and the adjacent islands, lies between  $39^{\circ}$  and  $48^{\circ} 15'$  north latitude, and between  $16^{\circ}$  and  $30^{\circ}$  east longitude. It extends, from east to west, in its greatest length, about 700 miles, and from north to south, in its greatest breadth, about 650 miles, including an area of about 183,140 square miles. The military frontiers of Austria form its northern outline; on the east it is bounded by the Pruth, the Black Sea, the Bosphorus, the Sea of Marmora, and the Dardanelles; on the south, by the Archipelago and the northern border of Greece; and on the west, by the Ionian Sea, the Straits of Otranto, the Adriatic, and the Austrian provinces of Dalmatia and Croatia.

Turkey is traversed by several lofty mountain ranges, which form and enclose high valleys and table-lands, leaving only, in some places, a narrow border of lowland along the sea-coasts. Such is its general character between the Danube and the frontier of Greece; but to the north of that

great river, the country sinks into a plain, which stretches north-eastward to the frontiers of Russia and the Carpathian Mountains, and includes the Principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia. The mountain ranges are known under the names of the Balkan, the greatest culmination of which is less than 10,000 feet; the Hellenic range; the Dinaric Alps, which may be regarded as belonging to the vast system of the Alps; and the Carpathian Mountains. None are of any great height, and chiefly form tablelands and watersheds, which direct the great rivers. The basin of the Danube includes more than a third part of the country. The other principal rivers are the Maritza, the Drina, and the Morava. The Bosphorus, one of the most important passes of Europe, unites the Black Sea with the Sea of Marmora; and the Dardanelles is a strait between the latter and the Archipelago. The Turks have command of both, and, consequently, are dominant in those seas. In the Archipelago are a number of large and fertile islands. **CANDIA**, forming its southern limits, is about 160 miles long, and in its greatest breadth 36 miles, with an area of 3,200 square miles. It is almost covered with rugged and barren mountains, which increase in elevation towards the west, where they are snow-capped even in June. **Ida**, the loftiest peak, rises in the centre of the island to 7,674 feet. The mountains abound with grottos and caverns, and are clothed with oak, chestnut, and pine; and fruit and vegetables of the most delicate description grow spontaneously, while the ground is covered with aromatic herbs. Animal life is here prolific, and in great variety. The pastures are good, and cattle abundant. The population consists of about 160,000 Greeks and Turks. The principal towns are Candia, Retimo, Khania, and Splakia.

The European part of Turkey enjoys a climate superior to that of almost every other European region. The seasons succeed each other with the greatest regularity, and the atmosphere is extremely salubrious and friendly to the human constitution. Though frequently visited by the plague, that scourge has not its origin in Turkey, but owes its propagation and virulence to the notions of the people, who imagine that every precaution to avoid it is useless, and who consequently expose themselves, without scruple, to infection imported from the east.

If the climate of Turkey is agreeable, the soil is in no less a degree fertile and productive. The most valuable of fruits grow spontaneously, and the crops of grain are generally larger than can be consumed at home. Agriculture, however, is little understood, and less practised; for such is the nature of the government, that property is insecure, and industry finds a thousand obstacles thrown in its way. The only roads are beaten pathways, and the only carriages planks laid on rough wheels, drawn by buffaloes. In the northern provinces the pastures are luxuriant and wheat might be raised in any quantity. In the southern parts rice is common. Barley and a kind of grain called *deera*, are likewise cultivated. Grapes, dates, and olives are abundant.

The domestic animals of Turkey are not different from those of other European countries. The horses, however, are superior in breed. The camel is common in the southern provinces. Few wild animals exist, but in some parts the jackal is common. Birds and fishes are numerous, though little known to the naturalist. The Bosphorus swarms with myriads of the finny tribe, the most ordinary of which are the scombri, a species of mackerel, dolphins, and anchovies.

Copper and lead are the chief mineral products of Turkey. In former times, however, gold and silver are said to have been mined, and it is perhaps owing more to the natural indolence of the Turks that none is extracted at the present time, than to the scarcity of these metals.

The dominant people are the Ottoman Turks, a branch of the great Toorkee family of Central Asia. There are, however, various other races, some of them more numerous than the Turks. These are the Roumi or Greeks, the Arnauts or Albanians, the Bulgarians, and other Slavonians; the Wallachians, Armenians, Jews, Gipseys, and Franks. The estimates formed by statisticians of the population of Turkey are entirely conjectural, and differ widely in amount. We find the following statement of the numbers of the separate races, in the Weimar Almanac, which is, perhaps, as near the truth as can be reached: Ottoman Turks, 700,000; Slavonians and Bulgarians, 6,000,000; Albanians, 1,600,000; Wallachians, 600,000; Jews, 250,000; Gipseys, 200,000; Armenians, 100,000; Franks, 50,000: total, 10,680,000 under the direct dominion of the Padishah. To this number is to be added the population of Wallachia and Moldavia, 1,500,000; forming a grand total of 12,180,000, for the whole of Turkey in Europe.

All the Turks, and a great part of the Albanians, are Mahomedans; the Greeks, Wallachians, Moldavians, Servians, and Bulgarians, are members of the Greek Church; the Armenians adhere to the Greek Church; the Franks belong to the various religious sects of "Frankistan," (Europe;) and the Jews are followers of the law of Moses. There are no want of schools in Turkey, and the desire for education is general. To all the imperial mosques are attached "mudresses," where aspirants to legal or sacerdotal offices are instructed. Besides these there seems to be a number of schools devoted to individual sciences, as those of medicine, philosophy, engineering, naval architecture, &c. The subjects taught, however, are invariably perverted from their proper sphere, by that spirit of superstition and religious bigotry which pervades everything in this country.

The government is an absolute monarchy, or despotism, vested in a "Padishah," or Emperor, of the race of Othman, who, in virtue of a compact made with the last descendant of the Fatemite Caliphs of Egypt, is also "Khalif," or Vicar, of the Prophet, and, as such, head of the Mahomedan religion; but his official duties in that capacity are delegated to the "Grand Mufti," or Sheikh-ul-Islam. The Padishah usually delegates his authority in civil and military affairs to the Grand Vizier, as his absolute lieutenant. The principal ministers of state, according to their rank, are: 1. The Skeikh-ul-Islam. 2. The Grand Vizier. 3. The two Kadiaskers, of Roum-ili and Anadoli. 4. The ministers of the first class, namely: the Minister of War; the Seraskier, or Commander-in-Chief of Anadoli; the Capudan Pasha, or High Admiral; the Minister of Commerce; the Captain of the Guard; the Minister of Finance; the Minister of Foreign Affairs; the Chaoushbashi, or Executor of the Judgments of the Divan; the Hakimbashi or Chief Physician, and the President of the Board of Health. 5. The ministers of the second class, namely: the Reis-Effendi, or Secretary of State; the Treasurer of the Sultan's income; the Beilik-shi-Effendi, or assistant to the Reis-Effendi; the Master of the Ceremonies; the Director of the Wakuffs, or Charitable Institutions; the Interpreter of the Porte, and the Director of the Customs. The Council of Ministers is called the "Divan." This council makes all laws, decides suits, issues firmans, &c. The imperial court is usually styled the "Sublime Porte," a

name derived from the "Bab-Humayon," the principal port or gate of the outer wall of the palace, from which the imperial edicts are issued.

For administrative purposes the empire is divided into provinces, called "eyalets," the larger of which are governed by "Pashas\* of three tails," with the official title of "vizier;" and the smaller by "Pashas of two tails," with the title of "mirimiran." The eyalets are subdivided into "livas or sandjaks," each of which is under a "Pasha of one tail," with the title of "mira-liva or sandjak-bey;" and the cities and towns are governed by "Mutselims." The Pasha is invested with full powers of absolute government within his province; and has even the power to make war or conclude peace on his own account. The provinces have hitherto been sold to the highest bidder; the successful Pasha, of course, making it his business to reimburse his outlay by every species of extortion, and the exercise of his power in the most tyrannical and reckless manner. Nor is this system of venality confined to the sale of provinces; corruption pervades every department of the state, civil, legal, and ecclesiastical; and under its influence the provinces have become little better than deserts, and the empire has been brought to the verge of ruin. The late Padeshah Mahmoud, however, made many vigorous efforts to reform abuses, and his successor, Abd-ul-Mesjid has issued a "hatti-scheriff," or edict, dated 3d November, 1839, promising to endeavor, by new institutions, to secure for the provinces the benefits of a good administration; but so interwoven with every department are the corruptions complained of, that it becomes a radical impossibility to apply the remedy.

The revenues arise from various imposts; but as no accounts are published, we have no means of stating correctly the amount which reaches the imperial treasury. All the population, except the followers of the Prophet, are subject to a "haradz," or poll-tax, and each community or township is separately taxed for the property they hold. These revenues are farmed out to Pashas, who pay a stipulated sum to the emperor. Indirect taxes have also been introduced, similar in character to our customs, and certain duties are levied on the export and import, transit and sale of merchandize. It is asserted that, of late years, the general revenues have been in so flourishing a condition, as to have actually left a surplus over the expenditures.

The military power of Turkey, since the suppression of the Janissaries and Spahis, who were formerly the terror of Christian nations, has sadly declined. The cavalry, however, still maintains its ancient reputation for bravery and address, but its organization is greatly altered and now based on the French model. The horses are strong and active, and though not large, have more bone than those of Arabia, and are admirably calculated for light troops. The riders are armed with swords and lances, and are generally finer men than the infantry. The artillery are, however, the best soldiers in the army, and work their guns with great dexterity. No European soldiers are better trained, equipped, fed or paid, and we may add, better treated. The force of the army, exclusive of reserves, is estimated at 94,000 infantry and artillery, with 25,000 regular and 100,000 irregular cavalry. The naval force of the empire is stated at 62 vessels carrying 2,636 guns, in commission; 4 vessels and 24 guns building or in ordinary,

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\* "Pasha," or Bashaw, is not an official title, but merely a personal honor, like knighthood in Europe. There are three ranks of Pashas, designated by the number of tails they are allowed to bear on their standards.

and 9 steamers or 75 vessels in all, carrying 2,660 guns, and manned by 26,820 men. One half of this number, however, consists of corvettes and small vessels. The fleet is manned by landmen trained in the harbors, and is commanded by officers equally ignorant of seamanship and of naval tactics.

The Turks are not a manufacturing people, but their fertile territory and genial climate enable them to supply many of the materials for foreign manufacture. There are nevertheless several places distinguished for the production of excellent manufactured articles. The carpets of Anatolia are of the most durable and elegant descriptions, and their finer fabrics of silk and cotton have never been excelled in quality, beauty or durability. Silk stuffs are made at Constantinople and Saloniki; the braziers and iron smiths of Shumla have carried their art to great perfection; good steel is made at Scutari, Karatovi, &c.; and fire-arms at Semendria, Grabora and other places.

The grand commercial principle of Turkey is free trade; monopolies are prohibited, and commerce only limited and restricted by the extent of supply and demand. The principal articles of export are—horses, beeves, and swine, hides, wool, wine, tobacco, cotton, currants, fruits, olive oil, wax, honey, opium, silk, carpets, morocco, leather, metals, drugs, &c.; and the chief articles of import are—corn and every sort of manufactures and West India produce. The British enjoy a large amount of the Turkish trade, and are perhaps more favored by the government than any other nation. The principal ports are Constantinople, Adrianople, Saloniki, &c.

The means of internal communication in Turkey are very inferior, and few of the roads admit of carriage travel. In European Turkey the common beasts of burden are horses and asses, and for the accommodation of travellers there is an abundance of hostelrys called “han or khan,” in which every comfort is found. The inland trade is of course very restricted, and the consumption of foreign goods is almost entirely confined to the sea-board cities and the Danubian provinces.

Turkey is usually divided by geographers into nine provinces or regions, namely, Roumelia, including ancient Macedonia and Thrace; Thessaly; Albania; Herzegowina; Bosnia and Turkish Croatia; Servia; Bulgaria; Wallachia, and Moldavia. But for administrative purposes the country remaining under the direct dominion of the Padishah is divided into four eyalets, which are again subdivided into livas or sandjaks. The eyalets are: 1. That of **ROUM-ILI**, comprising Thessaly, Albania and the western part of Roumelia, divided into 16 livas; 2. That of **BOSNIA**, comprising Bosnia, Croatia and Herzegowina, divided into five livas; 3. That of **SILESTRIA**, comprising Bulgaria and the eastern part of Roumelia, divided into five livas; and 4. That of the **JEZAYRS** or Islands, comprising the coast of Thrace, and the Turkish islands of the Archipelago with Cyprus. The tributary provinces, now governed by their own princes, will be considered hereafter.

**CONSTANTINOPLE**, (called by the Turks Stamboul or Istamboul,) the capital of the Ottoman Empire, is situated on a hilly promontory at the southern entrance of the Bosphorus, in latitude  $41^{\circ} 1' N.$ , and longitude  $28^{\circ} 55' E.$  The city, built on seven hills, and their intervening valleys, forms an irregular triangular shaped area, pointing to the east, having its southern side washed by the sea of Marmora, and its north by the waters of the Golden Horn, which, extending five miles inland from the Bosphorus, forms one of the finest harbors in the world. The west side is formed by a triple wall,

which stretches across from the harbor to the sea. The total circuit of the city is between 11 and 12 miles. Within this enclosure the city forms a confused mass of narrow, winding, steep, and dirty streets, crowded with numerous mosques, which give to the city, viewed from a distance, an appearance of magnificence, which a nearer inspection dispels. The Serai, or imperial palace, commonly termed the Seraglio, occupies the point of the promontory, and consists of a group of buildings of various forms and dimensions, in the midst of numerous courts and gardens, the whole being surrounded by a high wall. The principal buildings in the city, however, are the Mosques, of which there are twenty dignified with the title of imperial. The first of these is the Church of the Holy Wisdom, (Ayia Sophia,) founded by Constantine, and rebuilt in its present form by the Emperor Justinian, in the sixth century. Externally it is a large square building, crowned with cupolas, but inside it exhibits the form of a Greek cross. In front is an ancient belfry, and its Moslem masters have added a beautiful minaret at each of its four corners. This mosque closely adjoins the Serai. Nearer the south end of the same hill is the Ahmedya, which is the State Church, or Cathedral of Constantinople, and is the one attended by the Padishah and his court. All the rest of the mosques are built after the model of that of Ayia Sophia. The general plan of all is the same; they contain, within their outward enclosure, a fore court, and a garden, or place of graves, forming a back court, and between the two is the sanctuary itself. The whole number of these buildings is said to be 400, and all are remarkable for their elegance, and the richness of their libraries and decorations. The bazaars of the city are also one of its distinguishing characteristics, and the fountains, baths, and hans, or hotels, are generally magnificent, and much admired by strangers. Water is supplied to the city abundantly by aqueducts, partly above and partly under ground, from seven reservoirs, near Belgrade, a village 15 miles north of the city. Water is, to the orientals, the symbol of the principle of life; and the words of the Koran, "By water everything lives," is almost universally inscribed on the great fountains, some of which form the finest ornaments of the city.

Outside the walls, and beyond the harbor and the Bosphorus, are several towns and villages, which may be called the suburbs. Galata, Pera, and Scutari, are the most considerable. GALATA is the principal seat of trade, the usual landing place from the Sea of Marmora, and contains the imperial custom-house. PERA is the head quarters of diplomacy, and the residence of foreign ambassadors and consuls. It is devoid of oriental character, and has the appearance of a second rate Italian town. SCUTARI, like Rome and Constantinople, stands on seven low hills, on the east side of the Bosphorus. Its ancient Greek name was Chrusopolis (gold-town,) probably from its being the place where the Persian tribute was collected. Its proper name is "Uskudar," a Persian word, meaning a courier. Scutari is, and has been from the remotest period, the post station of Asiatic couriers, the great rendezvous of caravans, and the place where travellers to and from the east commence and terminate their journies. In the front of the town is the Kiskoulasi, or Maiden's Tower, built on an insulated rock in the Bosphorus.

Constantinople and its suburbs are peopled by a motley group of Turks, Greeks, Armenians, Jews, Franks, and natives of the East, to each of which a separate district or quarter is allowed. The Turks generally occupy Stamboul, but within its walls are also the quarters of the Greeks, Armenians, and Jews. The Armenians form the busiest, the most valuable, and most respectable part of the population. They are the merchants, bankers, phy-

sicians, and general mechanics, and men of business of the cities. The Turks highly esteem them, and prefer them to every other nation for the management of their commercial and financial transactions. The Greeks generally reside in a district called Fanar: they are the rogues and vagabonds of the city. The Jews are found in the suburbs of Baleta and Haskoi, and are scattered in several Christian districts. They do not here, as in most other countries, confine themselves to mercantile pursuits, but are much devoted to mechanical business in all its departments. The Franks form a motley assemblage, and hail from every country of Europe and America. All foreigners, indeed, from the west of Turkey, are known as Franks. They number about 20,000. Pera, their quarter, is a perfect hot-bed of intrigue and villainy, and neither London nor Paris are said to produce such a precious lot of scoundrels and daring ruffians. They seem to be the offscourings of the capitals of Europe, and it is no wonder that the Turks despise the nations of which they are specimens. Of the total amount of the population the most conflicting estimates have been formed, varying from about 250,000 to upwards of a million. Mr. Reid stated the population in 1838, on good information, at 846,000, of which, in round numbers, 500,000 were Turks; 200,000 Armenians; 100,000 Jews; 28,000 Greeks; and 20,000 Franks and other strangers. The dogs of Constantinople, which are not private property, but are fed by the public, constitute the only scavengers, and exist in incredible numbers, being protected by law. So numerous are they, and so untamed, that they are becoming a nuisance; and the mosques have to be sedulously guarded to keep them from joining in the devotions of the faithful.

The receptacles for the dead are not the least interesting or important objects in Constantinople; they are far more picturesque and commodious than those of the living, and occupy hardly less extent of ground. The people of every creed have separate cemeteries. Those of the Moslems are distinguished by the dark cypresses with which they are planted, and by their turbaned stones of white marble. A cypress is always planted over each Mussulman's grave; and as no grave is opened a second time, their burial grounds have become vast forests, extending for miles around the city and its suburbs. Multitudes of turtle doves frequent these gloomy abodes, and hold a divided sway with bats and owls. Burying within the city is strictly prohibited.

Constantinople was founded by a Greek colony about 658 B. C., and bore for nearly a thousand years the name of Byzantium (Buzantion,) a name derived from Buzas, or Byzas, the leader of the colony. Byzantium, however, in its greatest extent, occupies only the two most easterly of the seven hills. In the year 328 A. D., Constantine the Great founded at Byzantium a new city, which was destined to rival ancient Rome, and called it Nova Roma; but his own name ultimately prevailed as its designation. For eleven centuries it remained the capital of the eastern portion of the Roman Empire, till it was taken by storm in 1553 by the Turks, under Mahommed II., who made it the capital of his empire, and there his successors have fixed their almost uninterrupted abode.

ADRIANOPLE, (the Ederneh of the Turks,) the first Ottoman capital in Europe, is situated on the banks of the Tundja, at its confluence with the Maritza. It has now the appearance of desolation; the streets are covered with grass, and the houses apparently deserted. Adrianople was built by the Emperor Adrian. Its population is vaguely estimated at 100,000. It has few objects worthy of attention except the mosque of Selim II., which is



regarded as the most magnificent temple of Islam in the world, and the Bazaar of Ali Pasha, which presents a more distinguished appearance than any of the bazaars of Constantinople.

SALONIKI (ancient Thessalonica,) the most commercial city in European Turkey after Constantinople, is situated at the head or northern extremity of the fine bay to which it gives its name. Population, 90,000. There are a number of other important towns in Turkey, but our space is too limited for us to describe them. PHILIPPOLI is a large manufacturing town, and SELIMNO is celebrated for its fair, which is attended by merchants from every part of Europe and Asia. GALLIPOLI, at the northern entrance of the Dardanelles, on the west side of the straits, is a large town, the capital of the eyalet of Jezayrs, with 17,000 inhabitants and a great trade. It is also noted for excellent leather. KARATOVA is noted for an argentiferous copper mine, and NOVA BERDA for the silver mines in its vicinity. LARISSA, on the south branch of the Salambria, is a large town, noted for its manufactures, and as the centre of the trade of Thessaly. Due north of Larissa, about 30 miles distant, is the celebrated Mount Olympus, a giant mass, which rises in two peaks named St. Stephano and St. Elias, to the height of 9,754 feet above the level of the sea. The ridges forming its southern base are separated from the ridges of Ceta by the vale of Tempé, a deep gorge, through which the Salambria has forced its way to the sea. SOPHIA (the Traditza of the Bulgarians,) is a large town situated in the midst of high mountains, between Isker and Nissava, on the high road to Servia, with celebrated baths and 46,000 inhabitants.

### THE PRINCIPALITY OF SERVIA.

SERVIA was formerly a province of the Turkish Empire, but is now a sovereign principality, acknowledging the supremacy of the Padishah, and paying a tribute. It has an area of about 12,000 square miles, and 380,000 inhabitants.

Servia is an inclined plain, surrounded on three sides by lofty mountains. In the highest and most northerly plateau are many miles of level ground; but the rest of the country is furrowed by ridges of hills, which diminish in height towards the north. The only town of any importance is BELGRADE, at the confluence of the Save and the Danube, and on the right bank of the latter river. It is a large but decayed town, presenting a most picturesque appearance from the number of its domes and minarets peering from among the dark cypresses with which they are surrounded. The town is enclosed with half ruined walls, gates and towers, and has a citadel built on a bold promontory, once considered the bulwark of Turkey on this side, but now completely neglected and falling to decay. It has a Turkish garrison, and Pasha dependant on the Vizier of Silistria. The seat of the Servian government is sometimes at Belgrade, and sometimes at Kragojevacz, 73 miles to the south-east. SEMENDRIA, the former capital of Servia, has fallen completely to ruin. There are several other small towns, chiefly occupied as garrisons to defend the frontier.

In the beginning of the present century, Czerny-Georges, a Servian in the service of Austria, formed the design of freeing his country from the Turkish yoke, and raised an insurrection which continued for severa.

years, when this leader was captured and beheaded. After his death, the war continued; and at length the Turks, finding themselves able no longer to oppose the patriots, agreed to resign the province to a native governor, who should have the management of its internal policy, while the Padishah should still control its external relations. The country, since that period, has improved with silent but astonishing rapidity, and has already made immense progress in instruction, administration, order, and industrious activity.

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### THE PRINCIPALITY OF WALLACHIA.

WALLACHIA extends along the north side of the Danube, and back to the Carpathian mountains. Its greatest length is 275 miles, and its greatest breadth 130, with an area of about 30,000 square miles, and a population of 950,000 souls.

This principality, until lately, was ruled by a governor, with the title of Hospodar, chosen from the Greeks of Constantinople, and vested with regal authority; the choice, however, was determined by purchase. By the treaty of Bukharest, in 1812, the Russian Czar acquired the right of interfering in matters connected with the religion of the people, and in cases of outrage committed by Turkish officers against the Christians; and by the treaty of Adrianople, in 1829, this power of interference was so greatly extended, that the principality is now completely under the control of the Czar, and little else than a Russian province. To the Padishah they pay a small annual tribute, and he still appoints the Hospodar for life, from a list of nominees presented by the Boyars or nobles, and prepared, of course, at the dictation of Russia. The government, however, is of the worst possible kind; every department is in miserable disorder; the people are divided into two classes—tyrants and slaves; and the country is ill cultivated, and thinly inhabited by a wretched population.

BUKHAREST, the capital, is a large town, with 80,000 inhabitants, situated on the navigable river Dombrovecza, in an extensive marshy plain. It has few or no manufactures, but a considerable trade. The other remarkable places are: TERGOVIST, formerly the capital, but now almost in ruins, with a population reduced from 30,000 to 5,000 inhabitants; IGLAS, a small commercial town above the confluence of the Alouta with the Danube; PLOVESTI, a large town with a well-frequented fair; and several others, as Brailow, Krajova, Giurgewo, Waleni, Kimpuria, Rimnik, &c.; the last three noted for their neighboring salt mines.

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### THE PRINCIPALITY OF MOLDAVIA.

MOLDAVIA adjoins Wallachia, on the north-east, being separated from it by the river Sereth, and its affluent, the Milkov; and is bounded on the north-east by the Pruth, which divides it from Bessarabia, and on the west by Transylvania and the Buckowine. Its extreme length is 220 miles, and its extreme breadth 110, with an area of 16,000 square miles.

The country has undergone the same revolutions as Wallachia, is governed in a similar manner, and is in an equally wretched state. (*See Wallachia.*)

IASSY, the capital, is a large town with 40,000 inhabitants, situated on a height near the river Bachliu. GALACZ, or Galatz, at the confluence of the Pruth and Sereth with the Danube, may be considered as the port of both Moldavia and Wallachia. It is a large wooden-built town, and contains about 20,000 inhabitants. It carries on an extensive trade, chiefly in the raw produce of the principalities. Vessels of 300 tons come up to the quays.

## THE KINGDOM OF HELLAS, OR GREECE.

FORMERLY the seat of civilization, learning, and song, Greece is in many respects one of the most celebrated countries of the world. Its ancient grandeur, however, and its military renown, its sages and heroes, its literature, arts and sciences, the accounts of which form the most splendid pages in the history of mankind; and its proficiency in every pursuit that dignifies the human faculties, which has excited the wonder and admiration of every succeeding age and country, have long been engulfed in that torrent of barbarism which inundated Eastern Europe in the middle centuries, and obliterated the very landmarks of its ancestral greatness. No part of the globe, indeed, affords such a melancholy contrast between its ancient and modern condition, as Greece. Long swayed by the Moslem, and its inhabitants reduced to the worst forms of slavery, its spirit and enterprize suppressed, its literature gone, and its sages almost forgotten in the heart of their own country, ignorance and superstition have necessarily been the portion of the descendants of those who fell at Thermopylæ, and who in a thousand battles subdued the then known world, and planted colonies and spread civilization in the farthest off lands. Yet this Greece, so fallen and profaned by Infidel hordes, is not yet dead: the same fire which sped in the veins of its ancient heroes, the same intelligence, the same noble daring and manly devotion to liberty have but slept, and the day has come when its long sleep is over, and its people have again aroused themselves from their apathy, and already the barbarian incubus has been dispelled as a weight from the bosom of a dreamer on the return of consciousness and volition. The Turk has retired from the land of Ulysses, and once more history proclaims the restoration of Greece to her position as a nation.

The present limits of Greece, however, can bear no comparison to its ancient empire. Formerly Greece was everywhere, and the whole world its tributary. Greece of the present day is but a small province of its once mighty dominion; and as yet the Ottoman lords it over the fairest portions of the empire of Alexander.

Independent Greece is bounded on the north by the Turkish provinces of Albania and Thessaly, on the west by the Ionian Sea, on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the east by the Archipelago. It lies between  $36^{\circ} 15'$  and  $39^{\circ} 10'$  north latitude, and between the meridians of  $20^{\circ} 40'$  and  $26^{\circ} 30'$  east longitude, and comprises three distinct portions, viz: Hellas, or Greece Proper, the Morea,\* and the Greek Islands of the Archipelago. The superficies of these several portions is estimated at 20,000 square miles.

\* So called from its fancied resemblance in form to the leaf of the *morus*, or mulberry-tree.

HELLAS, or Greece Proper, is a long tract of hilly country, extending about 185 miles from east to west, with a breadth no where exceeding 50 miles, between Thessaly and Albania, and the gulfs of Lepanto and Egina.

The MOREA, the ancient Peloponnesus, is a large peninsula, 137 miles in length by 135 in its greatest breadth, but of very irregular form, and connected with the mainland of Hellas by the Isthmus of Corinth.

The ISLANDS lie chiefly in the Archipelago, and before the restoration formed the Turkish Eyalet of Jezayrs. The largest, and those inhabited, are Hydra, Spezzia, Poros, Egina, Augistra, Salamis, Scopelos, Helidromia, Sciathos, Scyros, Syra, Tinos, Miconos, Cea, Thermia, Naxos, Paros and Antiparos, Siphnos, Seriphos, Cimolos, Milo, Polycandros, Sicinos, Ios, Amorgos, Santorin, Anaphe, Astypalæa, and Eubœa or Negropont.

The general aspect of the continental portion of Greece is characterized by a very singular distribution of its mountains, which are so disposed as to enclose large basins or circular hollows. The country is thus marked out into distinct districts, well adapted to become small communities, such as we find the states of ancient Greece to have been. Some of these basins terminate at the coast, and seem to have been formed by the retiring of the sea, as those of Athens, Argos, Laconia, Messenia, and Elis. Others are completely surrounded by their mountain ramparts, except at one point, where the accumulated waters of the basins have forced for themselves an outlet; such are those of Bœotia and Arcadia. Central Hellas is a rugged district, being occupied almost entirely by the branches and declivities of mounts Cœta, Helicon, and Parnassus. East and south of this are Bœotia and Attica. Bœotia is entirely enclosed by highlands, and is divided centrally by a low range of hills. The Lake of Topolias, which occupies the bottom of the larger division, receives all the waters of the district, which it sends off by subterraneous passages to the sea, on the north-east. The country is very fertile, but subject to fogs and marshy exhalations. Attica, to the south-east, is comparatively arid and barren, but is peculiarly distinguished for the beauty and serenity of its climate. In general, Western Hellas has a physical character, different from that of the eastern provinces. It consists of long valleys opening to the south, and rising towards the mountains of the north.

The Isthmus of Corinth, which connects Hellas with the Morea, lies between the gulfs of Lepanto and Egina. Towards the north it is occupied by high rocky hills, which indicate a strong military position; but in the south, where its breadth is about four miles, the surface is not more than 200 feet above the level of the sea.

The Morea consists of an elevated central plateau or valley, and of five separate maritime regions, formed by the exterior declivities of the mountains, and divided by their spurs or branches. The central valley of Arcadia, so famed in pastoral poetry, is high and cold, often covered with fogs, and subject to malaria. Most of its waters are carried off by the single channel of the river Roufia; but it has sometimes suffered from partial inundations. The coast regions are generally well watered and fertile; partly broken by rugged hills, but usually level. They are distinguished by the names of Argolis, which stretches in a semicircle round the Gulf of Nauplia; Laconia, around the Gulf of Lolokythi; Messenia, occupying the south-west; Elis on the west coast, and Achaia on the north. The two latter are hilly, with small river valleys, but rather dry.

The Cyclades, and the other islands in the Archipelago, are almost all

steep and rocky. Eubœa is traversed throughout its whole length by a ridge of hills, and is separated from the mainland of Eastern Hellas by a very long channel or strait, so narrow at the middle as to be spanned by a bridge.

The mountains which cover so large a portion of the country are partly wooded and partly naked; the woods abound most on the west side. The low country, susceptible of tillage, probably does not amount to two-fifth parts of the surface, and not more than a twelfth part of it is under cultivation. Its want of enclosures, the thinness of its population, the ruinous condition of its cottages, commingled with the crumbling remains of noble structures, give it a deserted, desolate and melancholy appearance, and towards the end of summer the whole seems parched. Yet Greece contains, in the highest degree, every feature essential to the finest features of landscape, and travellers of taste have found a scarcity of phrase in which to express its majesty. It is a combination of towering mountains and sheltered plains, and its rich and ever changing scenes, that makes Greece surpass every other country in picturesque beauty. "Under the influence of so many sublime objects, the human mind becomes gifted as by inspiration, and is by nature filled with poetical ideas." Greece, consequently, became the native country of taste, science and eloquence, the chosen sanctuary of the muses, the model of all that is graceful and grand in sentiment or action

The most common cultivated products are wheat, barley, maize and rye; oats in small quantities; rice in marshy spots; millet peas, beans, tares, sesamum, anise, cotton and tobacco; and notwithstanding the most wretched system of agriculture, the produce is large. The olive is cultivated throughout Greece, but the vine is planted on a very limited scale. The Corinthian grape or currant is almost peculiar to the Morea and the Ionian Islands. It succeeds best in plains near the sea, with a western exposure, and prefers a dry and light soil. Madder grows wild in abundance, and the mulberry has become an object of increasing importance, and the product of silk is considerable. The almond, date, melons, oranges and other southern fruits grow in the open fields, and form a considerable part of the subsistence of the inhabitants. Culinary vegetables are in great variety, and the forests produce the oak, the cork tree, pine, ash, aloe, wild olive, chestnut, various dye-woods and plants, and a vast variety of flowers and aromatic herbs.

The wild animals are the bear, wolf, lynx, boar, stag, roebuck, goat, badger, marten, fox, weasel, jackal, &c. Wolves are very numerous, and dogs of a fierce and powerful breed are kept to guard the flocks. Of birds there are very large vultures, various species of falcons and owls, the cuckoo, ducks, geese, turkies, storks, and a vast abundance of game and small species. Greece is eminently a pastoral country, and the management of sheep is better understood than any other branch of rural economy. As in Spain, the flocks migrate, at the approach of winter, from the mountains to the low valleys near the sea. Goats are also numerous, and are shorn along with the sheep. Beeves are not very numerous. Buffaloes are the common beasts of burden, especially in the Morea, and when unfit for labor are killed for food. The horse is here an inferior animal, but sure-footed; nor are asses and mules so active and vigorous as in Spain.

The Grecians still pay great attention to their bees, and the honey of Hymettus still maintains its ancient pre-eminence, and is there produced in abundance. Silk worms also receive great care, and silk is produced in

considerable quantities. In the low countries the people are infested with troublesome and noxious insects, and in warm weather they become almost intolerable. The seas, lakes and rivers abound with fish, and seals are found on the coasts.

The dominant race are the "Hellenes," who claim to be the descendants of the ancient people who rendered this country so famous, but they have unquestionably received a large proportion of barbaric blood, particularly by intermixture with the Slavonians. They are a rude and unenlightened people, with all the vices of slaves and few redeeming virtues, but they are ingenious, active, enterprising and restless; and now that they have received some degree of national independence and civil liberty, they may be able to turn their talents to account in re-acquiring a portion of that civilization and learning they formerly diffused over western Europe. Their language is the Romaic, which they acquired during their subjection to the Roman Empire of Constantinople, and from which their Turkish name, Roubi, is derived. The Romaic bears a much closer resemblance to the ancient Greek than the Italian does to the Latin. The Hellenes all belong to the Greek church, but the priests freely admit and thankfully receive the bible. This circumstance and the general progress of education, will, no doubt, soon be productive of the happiest effect on the character of the nation, which at best is rather equivocal at the present day. The "Arnauts" or Albanians are very numerous, and have generally preserved their national manners, dress and language. They chiefly dwell in the cities of Hellas and in some portions only of the Morea. The "Mainotes," who boast that they descend from the ancient Spartans, inhabit the mountains of the south. They are a wild and lawless race, living under a sort of patriarchal feudal government, exercised by hereditary chiefs, and seem to be really the descendants of the free Laconians, who were enfranchised from the dominions of Sparta by a decree of the Roman Senate. The total amount of the population, in 1837, was 926,000, and may probably now count in round numbers 950,000.

The government is a constitutional monarchy, but the elements of its political system are in a very disorganized condition. The present king is a scion of the house of Bavaria. Greece formed a part of the Turkish empire until 1821, when the people revolted, and after a long and severe struggle, succeeded, with the aid of the Europeans and the sympathy of the whole world, in achieving their independence. The council of the state is composed of three Vice-Presidents, 17 Councillors in ordinary, and 14 special Councillors. In 1834 Athens was declared to be the capital. For administrative purposes the kingdom is divided into twenty-four "nomoi" or governments, and seven sub-governments. The defensive means of the nation are ample, and consist of 12,000 men of all arms, besides the militia; and they have a navy which numbers 32 small vessels, carrying 190 guns and 2,400 men. The revenue amounts to about 14,500,000 drachms, or about \$2,500,000; but the expenditure in most years exceeds this sum. The public debt is about \$35,000,000.

Education, until lately, has been entirely neglected; even the priests were illiterate; but under the new regime a respectable system of instruction has been established. At Athens there is a university, with 30 professors; a gymnasium, with eight professors; a high school; a normal school for the education of teachers; and three Lancasterian schools. These are all supported by government, and the scholars are promoted from the

lower to the higher on certificates of competency, for which there appears to be great competition. In the other parts of the kingdom there are four gymnasia, and about 250 or 300 primary and Lancasterian schools, partly paid from the treasury. The system as yet, however, has not been much extended, but in no country is education more highly-prized; and in a short time, it is probable, that a thorough revival will bring out the literary genius of the people, and place them in this respect on a common footing, at least, with the inhabitants of other European countries. Since the 4th August, 1833, the established religion of the state has been that of the "Orthodox Oriental Apostolic Church," of which the king is the head. Its government is vested in a "Holy Synod," which meets annually, and consists of a president, and five other members, with two secretaries. There are 33 bishops of the Greek Church; and Roman Catholic bishops at Naxos, Tinos, Syra, and Santorini. The Greeks are very jealous of their religion, and will not admit of propagandism.

Manufactures on a large scale do not exist. The people in their present circumstances do not require them, and such as do exist are necessarily confined to the rude necessities of life. Coarse cloths, implements of husbandry, furniture, &c., are made with more or less skill. The position of Greece, and its outline, however, seem to point it out as naturally adapted to commerce, but hitherto the disturbed state of affairs has prevented it from assuming its proper position in the world. The people, however, are a sagacious race, and already have considerable trade with foreign countries. Their exports consist principally of raw produce, as cotton, corn, tobacco, olive-oil, timber, wool, silk, honey, currants, figs, hides, dye-stuffs, drugs; with some wine, cheese, live stock, and the coarse manufactures of the country. The imports from Western Europe consist of manufactured goods, West Indian and American produce, and peltry; and from Turkey, coffee, flax, rice, drugs, &c. There are in the country no roads, in a civilized point of view; and the transport of travellers and merchandize is effected on the backs of horses, asses, and mules.

ATHENS, the capital of the kingdom, and one of the most celebrated cities of the world, is situated about five miles north-east of the Gulf of Ægina, in latitude  $37^{\circ} 58'$  north, and longitude  $23^{\circ} 46'$  east. It has been almost entirely rebuilt since the accession of the present government. Much, however, of the old town remains, and presents a sorry contrast with the modern improvements. The principal public buildings are the royal palace, the mint, the hospital, and barracks. The population, consisting of a most heterogeneous assemblage of all nationalities, already amounts to 20,000.

The antiquities of Athens are the great attraction. The ancient Acropolis, or citadel, is still in good preservation; and the remains of ancient temples are strewn over a large extent of ground, both within and without the walls.

Five miles below the city is the harbor of Port Leone, (ancient Piræus.) The harbor consists of a land-locked basin, with a narrow entrance, but with very deep water inside, and is large enough to accommodate a great number of heavy ships; and a pier has been erected for their accommodation. The communication between Athens and Piræus is formed by an excellent road, and omnibuses ply between them at all hours. The plain of Marathon, so celebrated for the victory gained there by the Athenians over their Persian invaders, B. C. 490, lies about 20 miles north-east of the

capital; and in the gulf westward of Athens is the island of Salamis, in the strait, between which and the mainland was fought the great naval battle between the Greeks and the Persians, B. C. 480. But it is invidious to notice a few celebrated places, where the whole land and water is teeming with historic glory, and pregnant with great events, both of ancient and modern times.

**NAPOLI DI ROMANIA**, or Nauplia in the Morea, was the capital for several years before the king removed to Athens. It is a well-built city, strongly-fortified, and possesses an excellent harbor. Nearly all the trade of the Morea centres here, and great activity prevails at the port. Its fortress of the Palamedii, on a high and steep rock, has been called the Gibraltar of Greece, and is deemed impregnable. Before the removal of the court the town contained about 9,000 inhabitants, but this number has been greatly decreased, and perhaps the present population may be 5,000. To the west and north of Nauplia are the ancient cities of Argos, Tiryns, and Mycenæ, but their ruins alone remain.

**LEPANTO**, the ancient Naupactus, is a small fortified city, in western Hellas, with a harbor on the north side of the Gulf of Lepanto, near the entrance. **MISSOLONGHI**, on the north side of a bay of the Gulf of Patras, is a small fortified town, famed for the sieges it underwent during the late war of independence, and for the death of Lord Byron, which happened there in 1824. **CORINTH**, one of the finest cities of ancient Greece, was, during the late revolutionary war, reduced to ashes, and now presents only a mass of ruins, and a complete picture of desolation. Some efforts have been made to restore it, but its situation is unhealthy, and little progress has been effected. It has long formed an entrepôt for the trade of Greece. The citadel, called Acrocorinthus, on a hill 1,800 feet in height, is considered one of the strongest fortresses of the kingdom. **PATRAS** is a considerable town on the north-west coast of Achaia, and has been much enlarged of late; population, 5,000. **NAVARINO**, on the south-west coast of Messenia, is a fortified town near the southern entrance of a noble basin formed by the island of Sphagi, (ancient Sphacteria,) memorable for a battle fought on the 20th Oct., 1827, in which the Turkish and Egyptian fleets were destroyed by the combined British, French and Russian squadrons, and which ended in effect the revolutionary war in Greece. **SPARTA**, so long renowned in history, and so long deserted, now constitutes the capital of the new province of Lacedæmon. It is situated in a plain near the right bank of the Basilipotamo (the ancient Eurotus), about 20 miles from the sea. It is now being rebuilt.

Hitherto we have confined our remarks to the continental towns: we must now take an excursion to the islands. **EGRIPPO** (corrupted to Negropont), the capital of Eubœa, is a large town built on the site of the ancient Chalcis, at the narrowest part of the Euripus, or strait which separates Eubœa from the continent. It was formerly the capital of the Turkish eyalet of Jezayrs. The houses are chiefly of Venetian build. The strait is divided into two unequal channels by a small square castle, which communicates with the mainland of Bœotia by a stone bridge 60 or 70 feet long, and with the Eubæan shore by a wooden drawbridge 35 feet long. On the south side, boats alone can approach Egrippo; on the north side there is no difficulty. Before the revolution, Egrippo contained 16,000 inhabitants. **SYRA**, a large and rapidly increasing commercial town, is the capital of the same named island. The harbor is one of the best



in Greece, and the population, which in 1827 was only 6,000, is now nearly 30,000. Syra is a free port, and the principal export consists of figs of a fine quality. ARNA, in Andros, is a good seaport, with 6,000 inhabitants. ANTIPAROS and MILO are celebrated for their noble antiquities. HYDRA is an important town, and has a large commercial population of at least 30,000; but its commerce was almost ruined during the late war. SPEZZIA, at the entrance of the Gulf of Nauplia, has 3,000 inhabitants, and its port is well frequented. The climate is very salubrious. The merchants of this city are very patriotic, and during the war furnished sixteen ships, besides fire-ships, to the Greek navy. The women are esteemed the most beautiful in Greece. EGINA, a newly built seaport town, in the island of Egina, in the middle of the gulf to which it gives its name, contains a museum and some literary societies. Egina was formerly celebrated for the richness and beauty of its ornaments, but almost the only remains consist of a few tombs, vestiges of wells, and a mosaic pavement. Near the south-east end of the island, on the top of a hill of moderate height, are the ruins of the temple of Zeus Panhellenios, (the Jupiter of all the Hellenes,) consisting of 23 columns, still entire, and the greater part of the architrave. These ruins are, however, thought by some antiquarians to be rather the remains of the temple of Pallas-Athené, or Minerva.

The history of ancient Greece is the school theme of every civilized nation; and its warriors, heroes, statesmen, philosophers and poets, the admiration of the world. Its modern revolutions need only occupy us in this connection. On the downfall of the old empires, the country was over-run by the Goths, Vandals, &c., &c. After the Latin conquest of Constantinople, in 1204, Greece was parted into feudal principalities, and governed by a variety of Norman, Venetian, and Frankish nobles; but in 1261, with the exception of Athens and Nauplia, it was re-united to the Greek empire by Michael Paleologus. In 1438 it was invaded by the Turks, but its conquest was not effected until 1481. The Venetians, however, were not disposed to allow its new masters quiet possession, and the country, during the 16th and 17th centuries, was the theatre of obstinate wars, which continued till the treaty of Passarowitz, in 1718, confirmed the Turks in their conquest. With the exception of Maina, the whole country remained under their despotic sway till 1821, when the Greeks once more awoke from their protracted lethargy, and asserted their claim to a national existence, and to the dominion of the land possessed and ennobled by their ancestors. The heads of the nobler families and others interested in the regeneration of their country, formed an "hetairia" for concerting patriotic measures; and in 1821, Ypsilanti proclaimed that Greece had thrown off the yoke of Turkey. The revolution broke out simultaneously in Greece and Wallachia; and the war continued with various success and much bloodshed, till the great European powers interfered, and the battle of Navarino, 20th October, 1827, insured the independence of Greece, which was reluctantly acknowledged by the Porte in the treaty of Adrianople in 1829. The provisional government, which had been set on foot during the revolution, was agitated by discontent and jealousies, and the President, Count Capo d'Istria, was assassinated in 1831. The allied powers having determined previously to erect Greece into a monarchy, offered the crown to Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg (now King of Belgium), who declined it, and it was finally conferred on Otho, a younger son of the King of Bavaria, who was proclaimed at Nauplia, on the 30th

August, 1832. Greece, however, is even yet in a very unsettled state, and a continued conflict is kept up between the king and the council respecting their several powers, but more in reference to the financial condition of the state

## THE UNITED STATES OF THE IONIAN ISLANDS.

THESE islands lie off the western coast of Greece, and are seven in number, namely : Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Santa Maura, Ithaca, Cerigo, and Paxo. The area and population of each is noted in the following table :

<i>Islands.</i>	<i>Area in sq. miles.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Pop. to sq. mile</i>	<i>Capitals.</i>	<i>Pop.</i>
CORFU.....	227....	66,000....	291	Corfu.....	16,000
CEPHALONIA.....	348....	64,000....	184	Argostoli.....	5,000
ZANTE.....	156....	36,000....	229	Zante.....	33,000
SANTA MAURA.....	180....	17,500....	96	Amaxichi.....	6,000
ITHACA.....	44....	9,700....	219	Vathi.....	4,000
CERIGO.....	116....	8,900....	77	Kapsali.....	5,000
PAXO.....	26....	5,200....	199	Port Gai.....	2,400
Total.....	1,079	207,300	189		

CORFU, in  $39^{\circ} 30'$  N. lat., and  $19^{\circ} 50'$  E. long., is situated a little to the eastward of the mouth of the Adriatic. It stretches from north to south in the form of a semicircle. The channel dividing it from the continent is only from two to ten miles wide, and has a depth of from 40 to 50 fathoms. The length is thirty-five miles, and its greatest breadth twelve. It is studded with mountains, and produces fine marble. The lesser hills consist mostly of an argillaceous soil, mixed with lime; and the substratum to all the low and cultivated lands is principally a stiff, tenacious clay, very retentive of moisture and extremely productive. The island is very subject to earthquakes, and has frequently suffered great damage. The climate is nearly tropical, and the animal sensations are influenced more by the winds than by the fluctuations of the mercury. The thermometer ranges from  $44^{\circ}$  to  $91^{\circ}$  Fahrenheit, and the average number of days on which rain falls is 96. Snow is seldom seen, and when it does fall it soon melts. Fevers and intermittents are of frequent occurrence, and form nearly two-fifths of the aggregate sicknesses. The plague has appeared on the island several times. Corfu is the seat of the general government, and contains a population of 16,000.

CEPHALONIA, although second in rank, is the largest of the Ionian islands. It is situated in  $38^{\circ} 27'$  N. lat. and  $20^{\circ} 32'$  E. long., having Santa Maura six miles to the northward, Zante eight miles to the southward, and the west coast of the Morea, 24 miles distant. Extreme length, 32, and extreme breadth, 18 miles, with a circumference following the coast of 150 miles. Cephalonia is extremely rugged and mountainous. At its southern extremity is the highest mountain of the islands, Mount Ænos of the ancients, now called Montagna Negra, 3,625 feet above the level of the sea. The harbor of Cephalonia runs inland for 8 miles, and is difficult of access, owing to its serpentine form, but offers a spacious and convenient shipping port. The entrance is extremely picturesque: on either side groves and plantations, relieved in the back ground by majestic mountains,

meet the eye in various succession. To the left, on the western side of the harbor, three miles from its entrance, stands the town of Lixurni (*olim Palis*.) In front of this town the harbor opens into a branch running to the south-east for three miles; and on the peninsula formed by this branch, and close to the sea, is ARGOSTOLI, the capital of the island.

ZANTE, or Zacynthos, formerly Hyria, is situated in  $37^{\circ} 47'$  N. latitude, and  $20^{\circ} 54'$  E. longitude, eight miles distant from Cephalonia, and lying opposite the Gulf of Lepanto. Length 24, breadth 12, and circumference 70 miles. It is of an irregular oval shape, indented with a deep bay at its south-east extremity. The aspect is decidedly mountainous, and occupying three fifths of the island, the elevation varying from 500 to 1,300 feet above the sea. The soil is of three different kinds: a strong black clay in the plain, calcareous in the rising ground, and sandy near the shore. Zante possesses petroleum and tar springs, somewhat similar to those of Trinidad. The island abounds in aromatic herbs, the odour of which is experienced some distance at sea; and the delicious flavor of Zantiote honey is doubtless owing to the fragrance of the herbage. Currants, oil, wine and flax are the principal vegetable productions. The city of ZANTE is very imposing in its external appearance when viewed from the sea. It stretches along a gently curved bay for about a mile and three quarters, and contains a large number of public buildings, 65 churches and about 4,000 private buildings.

SANTA MAURA, (*olim Leucadia*,) formed by an artificial channel dividing it from the mainland of Acarnania, lies in  $38^{\circ} 40'$  N. latitude, and  $20^{\circ} 46'$  E. longitude. Length 23, breadth 10, and circumference 60 miles. Santa Maura is a mass of mountains, of which mount St. Elias, the highest, rises to an elevation of 3,000 feet. The island is of an irregular triangular form, with its greatest inclination to the east. AMAXICHI, the chief town, is situated in a very beautiful plain two miles long and one broad, and thickly covered with olives. There are also 32 villages, some of them situated on the very tops of the mountains.

ITHACA, (*Thiaka*,) in latitude  $38^{\circ} 25'$  N., and longitude  $20^{\circ} 40'$  E., is distant from the mainland about 15 miles, and from the mouth of the gulf of Lepanto 30 miles. The shape is irregular, the length from north to south being 18, and the extreme breadth five miles, but in some places not more than one and a half. The appearance of Ithaca is unprepossessing, the whole island being a mass of mountains running in an irregular ridge east and west, and it may be considered a single mountain divided into rugged and mis-shapen rocks. VATHI, the capital, is little more than a single street, upwards of a mile long, the houses built of stone, and the town remarkable for its cleanliness and health.

PAXO, in latitude  $39^{\circ} 12'$  north, and longitude  $20^{\circ} 12'$  east, is of an oval shape, and composed of a single mountain, which probably at one period formed part of Corfu, from the southernmost part of which it is only seven miles distant. PORT-GAI affords good anchorage for a few vessels; and there is an inner harbor, formed by an island almost in contact with the other, having a circular battery commanding the town, which is scattered in an irregular manner along the beach.

CERIGO is the most southerly of the Ionian Islands, situated in latitude  $36^{\circ} 6'$  north, and longitude  $22^{\circ} 50'$  east, at the entrance of the Archipelago. The area is 116 square miles; the extreme length 20, the extreme breadth

12, and the circumference about 50 miles. The island was anciently known as Porphyris, from its possessing abundantly that beautiful marble. Ptolemy attributes the name of Cythera to Cytherus, the son of Phœnix, who established himself in the island. According to some, Cerigo was first peopled by the Lacedæmonians, who, in the eighth year of the Peloponnesian war, were expelled by the Athenians, under the command of Nicias. At a subsequent period it passed under the dominion of the Spartan Republic, and served as a retreat for Cleomenes, who, on the approach of Antigonos, king of Macedon, took refuge upon the island. Ptolemy, king of Egypt, was afterwards lord of Cerigo; the Romans next came in possession; then the Venetians, and it followed the fate of the other islands of the Union. The relics extant attest the former grandeur of the place; "Pælo Cæstro" ruin, to the northward of the harbor, stands on the ancient town of Menelaus, whose faithless wife Helen, caused the siege of Troy, and whose bath is still shown. Six miles from the harbor of St. Nicholas, on the east, was situated the former city of Cythera; and a little further to the south are some ruins, supposed to belong to a temple dedicated to Venus Cytheræa. The island is oval-shaped; at the north is Cape Sparta, having a chapel on its extremity; to the south is Cape Capello, close to which is the harbor, and immediately above the chief town, called KAPSALI, which offers a marked contrast to the towns of the other islands, being mostly of wood, and ill-constructed.

The Ionians partake, in some general features, of the Greek physical configuration. The upper and front parts of the skull are well-developed; the features are generally pleasing, and wear an air of intelligence. The olive complexion of these people is the effects of the sun; for the females, who are not exposed, have clear and white skins. The eyes are almost universally brilliant and full, and generally dark-colored; the hair is dark and bushy in the men; the beards copious; the figure of the middle standard—sometimes beyond it—and, if not indicative of strength, promising activity. The females are generally well-formed, many of them handsome, but they soon fall into years.

The Greek Church is the predominant faith of the islanders, the Roman Catholics numbering only about 3,000; and there are about 5,000 Jews. The Roman Catholic Church was introduced by the Venetians, and the states now form an archbishopric. The cathedral has a chapter composed of six canons, who elect a grand vicar. There are 13 churches, and 27 priests in the whole. The Greek Church has, for its head, a protopapa, (arch-priest,) elected by ballot, in an assembly of the clergy and nobles, and confirmed by the Patriarch of Constantinople. The denomination has 2,226 churches, and 868 priests. Besides these there are two English churches in Corfu and one in Cephalonia; and in the island of Corfu there is one dissenting preacher of the Independent denomination.

The whole establishment for education is under the general direction of a commission. At Corfu there is a university; also an ecclesiastical seminary, for the education of young men intended for the priesthood of the Greek Church; and in each of the islands is a school entitled secondary, maintained at the public expense, in which a good general education is afforded. In the chief town of each of the islands is a central school, also supported by government, on the mutual instruction plan; and, besides these, there are district schools on the same plan as the central, and where similar instruction is given; but in these only one-half of the teachers' sala-

ries come out of the public purse. The district and village schools are under the immediate superintendence of the head-master of the central school of each island, and there is an inspector-general of all these schools. The whole number of primary schools is 122, and the number of private schools is 120. In the public schools, including the university, seminary, and central schools, 2,949 scholars are taught, and in the private schools 3,652, or a total of 6,601 : being equal to 3.2 per cent. of the whole population, constantly undergoing tuition. There are several libraries on the islands, and a Bible Society has been established for distributing translations of the Scriptures into the Greek language, without note or comment.

The civil government is now composed of a Legislative Assembly, of a Senate, and of a judicial authority. The Assembly consists of forty members, of which eleven are integral members, and 29 are elected from the various islands. The members are elected (on a double list, formed by a majority of the votes of the primary council) out of the body of the Syndita of each island. The elections and all civil appointments are made for five years, and the session of the parliament of the states is held every two years. The votes are *viva voce*, and the sittings open. The eleven integral members, with their president, form the primary council. The Senate, which forms the executive power, is composed of six, viz. : five, and a president, entitled "His Highness ;" while the senators are styled "Most Illustrious." The senators are elected out of the body of the legislative assembly, but it requires the sanction of the Lord High Commissioner (a British officer) to give validity to the election. The senate remains in office for five years, and the president for half that period, eligible, however, to be re-appointed by the Lord High Commissioner. The senate names its own officers, and has the power of nominating to all offices under the general government, the regents of the different local governments, the judges of all the islands, and generally all, except municipal officers. During the recess of parliament the senate have the power of making regulations which have, *pro tempore*, the force of laws ; it has the power also of originating, as well as of disallowing any passed by the legislature.

The Lord High Commissioner is appointed by the British sovereign, and is generally a military officer. He appoints a resident for each island. The regent, advocate, fiscal secretary and archivist of each island are appointed by the senate. The municipal administration of each island consists of five members, appointed by the syndita, besides the president, (who is the regent.) The qualifications of the syndita or noble electors are very obscure. To form a legal meeting one-half of the syndita must be present.

The judicial authority in each island consists of three tribunals : civil, criminal, and commercial, and there is a court of appeal in each. Independent of these courts there are tribunals for the trial of minor offences, and for the adjudication of small civil suits, presided over by justices of the peace. At the seat of government there is in addition to the foregoing, a superior or high court of appeal, denominated "the Supreme Court of justice," which consists of four ordinary judges, two English and two Greek, and two extraordinary members, viz. : the Lord High Commissioner and the President of the Senate. Trial by jury does not exist, nor are there any assessors to aid the judges. No crimes but those of murder and high treason are punishable with death. The laws are partly Venetian and partly Greek.

The military defence of the islands is entrusted to the protecting sovereign, and all the regular force is formed of the British army. The militia of each island is also under the orders of the British, who appoint all the officers. The usual force maintained in these islands is about 3,300 men. The Ionians pay a stipulated sum towards the expenses for maintenance of fortifications and the pay and subsistence of the troops, and this costs them about £50,000 annually, or about one fourth of the total revenue.

The revenue amounted in 1836 to £184,068, and the expenditures to £219,544, being an excess of expenditure of £35,476, but in almost every preceding year, from 1827, a surplus revenue is shown. The revenue is derived from customs and transit duties, duties on exports and imports, monopolies, rents and municipal imposts. The expenditures are for the general and local governments, the church, education, public works, roads, military protection and contingencies. The fixed amount for the civil expenses of the general government is £25,566, and in 1836 the contingent expenses of the same were £6,243, or together, £31,809; and including the governments of the several islands the whole civil expenses were £96,226. The expenses of military protection in the same year amounted to £45,082; for the church, £2,416, and for education, £8,591; there is also charged £15,673 for the flotilla, from which it would appear that the Ionians possess a small navy. The only national coinage in the states is a small currency to the amount of £10,000 sterling, viz:—silver quarter-shillings, £1,000; copper quarter-pence, £6,000, and copper one-tenth pence, £4,000. Commerce is conducted by means of Spanish dollars and British gold. The weights and measures of Great Britain are those established by law.

We have in “Martin’s British Colonies” a mass of valuable statistics, but our limits will not allow of adding much to our account of these islands. The statistics of agriculture, however, are too important to omit altogether. In 1836 there were on the islands 14,189 horses; 10,366 horned cattle; 95,950 sheep, and 68,826 goats. The total number of acres under cultivation in various crops was 420,151, and the production as follows: wheat, 76,326 bushels; Indian corn and barley, 115,660; oats, 22,715; currants, 17,980,100 lbs.; olive oil, 113,219 barrels; wine, 210,147 barrels; cotton, 37,567 lbs.; flax, 74,933 lbs.; pulse, 23,378 bushels, and salt, 170,350 bushels. Currants are only grown in Cephalonia, Zante, Santa Maura, and Ithaca, but especially in the two first islands; and salt is produced only in Zante and Santa Maura. Only one-half of the whole area is under cultivation, and the quantity of bread corn grown is only equal to one-fourth of the annual consumption; the deficit is supplied by importations in exchange for currants, wine, oil, &c.

In the islands of Corfu and Zante soap to the value of £12,000 or £13,000 is made and exported annually; also considerable quantities of common earthenware. The other manufactures of the states are silk shawls, coarse linens, coarse woollen blankets and goat hair carpets and sacking. Agriculture is yet extremely rude, and the implements as primitive probably as in the time of Ulysses. The olive is the principal product. The vine is in general planted in the plains, and corn on the declivities of the hills. In some years, as in 1835, the currant gathering has yielded 255,000,000 lbs. of the fruit, and the quantity of olive oil has sometimes doubled the yield of 1836.

The early history of these islands is veiled in mythological confusion, but

there is every reason to believe that they were early colonized, and remained for many years as separate states. They subsequently belonged in succession to Corinth, Greece, Epirus and Rome; and on the fall of the eastern empire, the Venetians afforded protection to and claimed the sovereignty of the islands. The Turks strove hard to acquire them, without success, and on the downfall of Venice the French seized upon them; but evacuated them on the breaking out of the war in 1798-'99, when they were taken under the joint possession of Russia and Turkey, the former becoming, however, the sole protector. By a secret treaty they were transferred to Napoleon by the Emperor Alexander, but during the continental war they were captured by England, and at the peace of 1815 were allowed to remain under the protection of Great Britain.

A

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF

A S I A.

ASIA, the original seat of mankind, the largest, most early civilized, and in many respects the most interesting of the grand divisions of the earth, now claims our attention. Including the islands which belong geographically to it, this vast country lies between the parallels of  $11^{\circ}$  south, and  $78^{\circ}$  north latitude; and between the meridians of  $26^{\circ}$  and  $190^{\circ}$  east longitude. The greatest length from Cape Taimura in Siberia, to Cape Romania in Malaya, in the direction of the meridian, exceeds 5,300 miles; and the greatest breadth from east to west, along the fortieth parallel, or from Baba Burun in Asia Minor, to the east coast of Corea, is about 5,600 miles. The superficial area is about 17,500,000 square miles, or nearly as large as the Americas and Europe together.

Asia on the north is washed by the Arctic Sea, and on the north-east it approaches the American continent, from which it is separated only by the narrow Strait of Behring; on the east by the Pacific Ocean; on the south by the Indian Ocean, which lies between it and Australia; and on the west it is co-terminous with Europe and Africa. The boundary between Asia and Africa is formed by the Gulf of Aden, the Strait of Babelmandel, where the continents are only about 16 miles apart, the Red Sea and the Isthmus of Suez, where both continents unite for about 70 miles. It is separated from Europe by the Mediterranean Sea, the Archipelago, the Strait of the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora, the Strait of the Bosphorus, the Black Sea, the crest of the Caucasus mountains, the Caspian Sea to the Oural river, and thence up its mid-stream to its source in the Ouralian mountains, which latter forms the remainder of the boundary line to the Gulf of Kara, in the Arctic Ocean.

To the south and south-east of this continent is the greatest of all Archipelagoes, containing many thousands of large and small islands. These belong partly to Asia and partly to Australia, but they are not separated by any natural boundary. When the Portuguese and Spaniards began to be acquainted with the islands of India, they conquered or settled those only which were supposed to be likely to repay the expense and trouble. These were then, and are still considered as belonging to Asia. The others, which did not offer such advantages, and were not settled or visited at that time, are now included in Australia. In this way Japan, Formosa, the Philip-

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pinces, the Moluccas, and that long chain of islands which on the east begins with Timorlant, and on the west terminates with Java, are considered as belonging to Asia; while the numerous islands dispersed between the Moluccas and New Guinea, and lying at a short distance from the former, are included in Australia.

Every different formation and surface is met with in Asia. The northern portion, including Siberia, forms an extensive plain, rising gradually from the Arctic Sea, intersected by a number of large rivers, and exposed without shelter to the piercing blasts from the north. The central portion consists of a series of elevated plains and mountains, from which rivers flow in every direction to the surrounding seas; while that portion which stretches along the Indian Ocean, including China, Hindostan, Persia, and Arabia, presents a comparatively level country. Among the numerous mountains that intersect the surface, four great chains or systems may be distinguished stretching nearly parallel to each other in a direction from east to west, and named by geographers the ALTAI; the TEEAN-SHAN; the KIVAN-LUN, and the HIMALAYA. These, with their ramifications, occupy the greater part of the continent.

The "Chain of the Altai" extends from the sources of the river Irtysh to the Sea of Okhotsk. Between the Irtysh and Obi the chain consists of an extensive mass of high rocks, furrowed by narrow valleys and rapid rivers. Its culminating point lies north-west of Lake Ubsa, to the east of which the chain divides into three ranges, of which the middle range takes the name of Tang-nou, and extends eastward to the Lake of Kossogol; the most northerly is named Sayans-kean, and the most southerly Ulangom-ula. These three ranges, between  $98^{\circ}$  and  $102^{\circ}$  east longitude, join the mountains which encompass the Lake Baikal, and are usually called the Baikal Mountains. Farther east a chain shoots eastward, under the name of Kentei, and the mountains of Daouria, and afterwards joins the Iablonnoikrebet (chain of Apples,) the Khing-han, and the Aldan Hills, which, stretching along the west side of the Sea of Okhotsk, under the name of Stanovoi, extend to the north-eastern extremity of Asia, and terminate at Behring's Straits. The mean latitude of the Altai is between  $50^{\circ}$  and  $51^{\circ} 30'$  north. No part of the chain attains a greater elevation than 11,500 feet. The most westerly of its higher summits, the "Holborukha," loses its snow in May, but is covered again by the end of July; farther east is a loftier summit, the "Skhtskhebenûkha," but the highest is the "Bielûkha," which rises to the height of 11,000 feet above the level of the sea, and 7,000 above the surrounding mountains, and is covered with perpetual snow. From this lofty mass a range branches off to the east-south-east, extending, as before observed, to the extremity of Asia. Westward from Lake Zaisang the chain of the Altai is prolonged, under the parallel of  $49^{\circ}$  or  $50^{\circ}$  by a series of isolated hills, and groups of small mountains, through an extent of 540 miles, as far as the Steppe of Kirghiz, and ends abruptly about ten degrees to the eastward of the meridian of the Ourals. Among the secondary chains connected with the Altai are:—the "Mountains of Kolyvan," which are rich in gold and silver; the "Great Altai" of Humboldt, which unites the Altai with the Teean-shan; and the Tarbagatai chain, (about 6,000 feet high,) which extends to the south-west of the lakes Zaisang and Alak-tougul, and separates them from Lake Balkashi for nearly 500 miles. The Tarbagatai chain is considered as forming the north-western boundary between the Russian and Chinese Empires. The great volcanic mountains

of Kamtschatka may be considered either as belonging to the Altaian system, or perhaps more properly to the maritime or Japanese mountains.

The second great chain, called by the Chinese "Teean-shan" or Sky Mountains, extends from west to east nearly along the 42d parallel. The culminating point appears to be that mass of hills, remarkable for three snow-clad peaks, which lies nearly in the centre of Asia, upon the confines of Kansu, in the Chinese Empire, about 85° east longitude. From this point the Teean-shan stretches eastward towards Barkoul, beyond which it suddenly falls to the level of the great desert of Cobi, but after an interruption of about ten degrees of longitude, another chain called "Gad-jar" or In-shan, appears at the bend of the Yellow River, following the same direction from west to east. About 112° the Gad-jar becomes confounded with a snowy chain called "Ta-hang," and with a chain running north and south under the name of "Khing-han-ula," which forms an union of the Teean-shan and the Altai. The chain which may be considered as the principal, stretches further to the east, and connects on one side with the "mountains of Corea," and on the other with the chain which extends along the coast of Manchuria. Westward from the grand culminating point the Teean-shan is prolonged, to the north of Cashgar, under the name of "Mûz-tagh" or Mûsart, and ultimately turning south, sinks into the plains of Bokhara and Mawer-ul-nahr. Besides the divisions of the chain already mentioned, there are several secondary ranges connected with Teean-shan as the Ala-shan; the Ala-tagh, and the Ming-bûlak.

The chain of "Kwan-lun" or Kuen-lun, extends nearly along the 35th parallel, commencing about 70° east longitude. From this point the chain runs eastward, and after crossing Thibet in two branches, under the names of Tsûng-ling, to the north, and Ngari, Zzang and Ui to the south, forms, in eastern Thibet, the Kwan-lun of the Chinese, a mountain mass of prodigious height, which in their mythological geography is called the king of mountains, the highest part of the whole earth, the mountain which touches the pole and supports the sky; it is, in short, the Olympus of the gods of the Buddhists and the Tao-se. This great mass is supported on the north by the snowy chain of Nan-shan and Kilian-shan, which also extends west and east. Between the Nan-shan and the Teean-shan the mountains of Tangut bound the edge of the desert of Cobi; and that and other contiguous chains form the country of Kham, western Setchuen, and Yun-nan. In Thibet the Kwan-lun is connected with the Himalaya by several lofty chains, whose peaks are covered with everlasting snows.

The "Himalaya mountains" extend in a general direction north-west and south-east. From the meridian of 69° east, where it is connected with the Hindoo-koh, the chain extends to the east and south-east along the northern frontier of India, Assam and Birmah, and penetrates into the Chinese province of Yun-nan, where, to the westward of Yung-chang, it exhibits sharp and snowy peaks. Hence it extends through China to the Pacific Ocean, which it reaches a little north of Amoy, and is further prolonged through the island of Formosa, in which the peaks almost reach the line of perpetual snow. Westward from 69° the chain of the Himalaya forms or is connected with the "Hindoo-koh" or Indian Caucasus, and the "Paropamisan mountains," which extend westward over about six degrees of longitude, and then inclining to the north-west, appear to terminate before reaching the Caspian Sea. In the same direction, however, after a short interruption, the "chain of Elbûrz" appears, extending along the south shore of that sea, and connecting the Caucasus and the mountains of Armenia. The culminating

points of the Himalayas are found on the frontiers of India, between  $76^{\circ}$  and  $90^{\circ}$  east, where they present a series of snow clad peaks, many of which are from 4 to 5 miles in perpendicular height, and one of them, the "Dhwalagiri," rises to the enormous elevation of  $5\frac{1}{2}$  miles. The Himalayas, though running nearly in the same direction, are not exactly parallel with the Kwan-lun; but approach them so nearly in the meridian of Attok and Jellalabad, that between Cabool, Cashmere, Ladakh, and Badakhshan, the Himalayas seem to form only a single mass of mountains with the Hindoo-koh and the Tsung-ling. In like manner the space between the Himalayas and the Kwan-lun, further east, is more occupied by secondary chains and isolated groups of mountains, than the table-lands between the Altai and Tean-shan, and between the latter and the Kwan-lun. Consequently Thibet and Kashi cannot properly be compared, in respect of their geological structure, with the high longitudinal valleys which are situated between the eastern and western Andes. Nor is the level of these countries equal throughout; for the mildness of the winters and the cultivation of the vine in the gardens of H'lassa, indicate the existence of deep valleys or circular depressions. The courses of the Indus and the Sanpoo, in opposite directions, also indicate a depression of Thibet to the north-west and the south-east. From this watershed, which is situated nearly in the meridian of the Jewahir and Mount Cailasa, the chain of Kara-korum-padishah stretches to the north-west towards the Tsung-ling and the snowy chains of Hor and Zzang to the east. The Kara-korum chain forms the watershed between the affluents of the Indus on the one side, and the rivers of Yarkhand on the other. The "Hor," at its north-western extremity, is connected with the Kwan-lun, and its course from the eastern side is towards the Tengri-noor. The "Zzang" bounds the long valley of the Sanpoo, and extends from north to east towards the Neën-tsin-tangla-gangri, a very lofty mountain, which between H'lassa and the Tengri-noor terminates in mount Nem-shun-ûbashi. Between the meridians of Ghorka, Katmandhû and H'lassa, the Himalayas send off to the north, towards the right bank or southern border of the valley of the Sanpoo, several spurs covered with perpetual snow, the highest of which is the "Yaria-shamboi-gangri," (i. e. the snowy mountains in the country of the self-existing God,) to the westward of the Lake Yamruk-yumdzo, or Paltee.

Subordinate to the Himalayas and the Kwan-lun, the following chains may be mentioned:

1: The "Yung-ling," which, running north and south in a long line of snowy peaks, separates China from Thibet and joins the chain of "Pe-ling," which bounds Shansi to the south, and has several snowy summits. On the frontier of Honan it becomes lower, and runs north-west towards Shansi where it joins the Ta-hang. In Shansi itself a secondary chain, called "Loung," stretches from the Pe-ling to the Hoang-ho, where it rises to the snow line and unites with the Ala-shan. In general the Pe-ling marks the boundary of the basins of the rivers Hoang-ho and Yang-tse-kiang, terminating near the sea between their mouths. The Nan-ling, rising from the extremity of the Yun-ling, at a great distance from the Pe-ling, approaches the latter as it advances eastward, and sends off to the north-east several branches, which accompany the winding of the Yang-tse-kiang even to its mouth. The mountains of "Yan," to the north-west of Pekin, and the "Ta-hang," to the west, in Shansi, appear to belong equally to the Tean-shan and the Kwan-lun.

2: The "Sub-Himalayas," which extend along the south side of the great chain, and form with it the great valleys of Nepal, Bootan, &c

3: The chain which, under the names of "Yomadoung" and "Anapek-tomiou," extends from the upper end of the valley of Assam to Cape Negrais.

4: The "Birman-Siamese chain," which extends north and south, between the valleys of the Saluen and the Meinam, from the confines of Yunnan through the peninsula of Malaya to Cape Romania.

5: The "chain which traverses Laos" and forms the eastern boundary of Siam, separating the valley of the Meinam from that of the Maykuang.

6: The "Chain of An-nam," which forms the watershed between the affluents of the Maykuang and the numerous rivers of Tonkin and Cochin-China.

7: The "chain of Suleiman," which extends from north to south nearly parallel to the river Indus, and whose branches form the numerous secondary chains which traverse Afghanistan and Beloochistan, losing themselves in the table-land of Kerman on the one side, and terminating at Cape Jask on the other. Its principal summits are, "Suffeid-koh," west of Peshawer, about 14,000 feet above the level of the sea, and "Tukht-i-Suleiman," ( $31^{\circ} 38'$  N. latitude,) 11,000 feet.

The highest peaks of the Himalayas are supposed to be those of "Dhwalagiri," nearly in the meridian of Benares, and "Chumulari," in Bootan; their elevation being calculated, though not exactly ascertained, at 28,000 feet. Further west various parts of the range have been approached, and even crossed by Europeans, and the elevation of the summits pretty nearly ascertained. The "Southern" or Hither Himalayas, which separate the feeders of the Sutlej from those of the Pabur, Roopir, and Andrytie, vary from 16,982 to 19,512 feet, and the passes from 15,000 to 16,000; the "Jumnotri peaks," or Bunderpooch mountains, from 20,122 to 21,155; "St. George," "St. Patrick," and the "Pyramid," above Gangoutri, 22,240, 22,385, and 20,966; "Roodra-Himala," 22,390; "Surga-Roor," 23,441; a cluster extending from Kedarnath to Budrinath, six peaks, from 22,130 to 23,441, and the three contiguous peaks from 19,178 to 21,683; "Jawahir," four peaks, from 22,385 to 25,741; "Dhaibun," in Nepaul, 24,640, and "Gossainthan," also in Nepaul, 24,740 feet.

The "Bolor" or "Bulyt-tagh," (Cloudy Mountains,) extend in a direction transverse to that of the preceding chains, being connected with Tsung-ling on the south, and united on the north to the chain which passes to the north-west of Cashgar, under the name of Cashgar-davan. Of the northern part of the chain very little is known; but, in its middle portion, it forms or consists of the table-land of Pamer or Pamir, which is elevated 15,600 feet above the level of the sea, and is overtopped by mountains which rise several thousand feet higher. From Pamer, a chain of very lofty mountains, the "Hindoo-koh," extends in a south-west direction, terminating with a lofty snow-capped mountain, named "Koh-i-baba," 48 miles west of Cabul, and being connected with the Himalayas at the valley of the Punjsheer, north-east of that city, forms the watershed between the basins of the Oxus and the Indus. From the same part of Pamer, the Bolor is continued almost straight south till it joins the Himalayas, separating in its progress the hill country of Chitral from Little Thibet; while a third branch extends in an easterly direction towards the chain of Kara-korum, which, as already mentioned, separates the basin of the Indus from that of the river Yarkhand. It thus appears that the chains of Hindoo-koh and Kara-korum may either be considered as diverging ranges of the Bolor-tagh, or as constituent parts of the western prolongation of the Kwan-lun. Though their elevation has not been ascertained by measurement, they appear to be much higher than

the Himalayas, for they form a complete watershed between India and Central Asia, while, on the contrary, the Himalayas are interrupted and broken through in many places by the streams which flow from the northern ranges, and the hill country which lies between them.

The "Ourals," or *Ouralian Mountains*, which belong in common to Europe and Asia, extend from north to south, through  $20^{\circ}$  of longitude, from the Arctic Ocean to the Sea of Aral. Compared with the preceding chains, the Ourals are very low in their general elevation, though some of them reach the limit of perpetual snow, a circumstance which is not remarkable in their high latitude. Where the road from Moscow to Siberia crosses these mountains, the chain is about 40 miles broad, but the ascent and descent of the road are so nearly imperceptible, that were it not for the precipitous banks everywhere to be seen, the traveller would hardly suppose he was crossing a range of hills. The average elevation of this part of the range seems not to exceed 1,350 feet, though some rocky masses rise perhaps a thousand feet higher; and the base upon which the chain rests is itself 900 feet above the level of the sea. Beyond  $58^{\circ} 20'$  the chain presents several summits which attain between 2,000 and 3,000 feet; but the highest part of the range is situated to the north of  $59^{\circ}$ , and the highest of all, the "Daneshken-kamen," lies to the north of  $60^{\circ}$ . The summits of this northern part of the range have been ascertained to rise to between 8,000 and 9,000 feet above the level of the sea; but the principal summits are detached mountains, to the eastward of the main range. Lateral branches also extend eastward to a considerable distance into the plain. The principal chain bears successively from north to south the names of "Poyas," the "Verk-hûtûrian Ourals," the "Ourals of Iekaterinburg," and the "Bashkirian Ourals." Several low branches diverge into the governments of Archangel and Vologda; but the principal subordinate or diverging chains are connected with the Bashkirian Ourals. The "mountains of Obtsheisyr," which diverge from the western slope of the principal chain, are really nothing more than a long table-land of undulating hillocks, extending into the government of Orenburg; forming, however, the northern limit of the depression which surrounds and contains the Caspian Sea. The "chain of Moûghojar" extends into the country of the Kirghiz, and seems to be connected with the plateau called the *Ûst-Urt*, between the Caspian Sea and Lake Aral. Subordinate to this last-named chain, or part of the same group, are the "Great Bûrzouk," a chain of low hills, which extends in a series of rocky cliffs along the northern shore of the Aral, spreading out towards the west, and turning into the isthmus; and the "Little Bûrzouk," which are situated a little farther to the south-east, and terminate with a promontory at the north-eastern corner of the Aral. The "mountains of Novaia Zemlia" may also be considered as an orographic connection or prolongation of the Ourals. The principal summit is "Glassowsky," about 2,500 feet above the level of the sea.

The remaining mountains of Asia, those of the south-west, have been classed by the French geographers as one group, which they call the "Western or Tauro-Caucasian System." The grand nucleus or centre of the system, is formed by the high table-land of Armenia, and the lofty mountains which intersect and overtop it. From the stupendous peak named "Macis" by the Armenians, "Agri-dagh" by the Turks, and "Ararat" by Europeans, two ranges diverge to the westward, forming between them the long valley of the Murad or Eastern Euphrates. The southern of these are the "Masian Mountains," (*Mons Masius* of antiquity,)

which are merely a prolongation of the "Taurus," which extends into Asia Minor. The northern branch is named by the Turks "Kus-dagh, Kiziljeh-dagh, Aghir-dagh and Ala-dagh;" by the Armenians "Dagh-er-dagh," and "Macis;" and to the north of it are two long narrow valleys drained by the Karasu and the Aras. Farther north the mountains of "Tscheldir" and "Ianik" separate the table-land of Armenia from the lowland on the Black Sea, and are connected with Agri-dagh by irregular ranges and clusters of mountains, which separate Armenia from Georgia and Azerbijan, under the names of "Klardjethi, Taosi, Medin, and Sdorin Govgas, or Lower Caucasus."

From Armenia three chains of mountains diverge towards the west, which may be considered as forming so many different groups. The first class encloses the upper basin of the Euphrates, and passing that river above Samosat, advances towards the west, under the name of "Taurus," "Jebel-Kurin," and many other designations, along the southern coast of Asia Minor, terminating in many promontories and islands in the south-western part of the peninsula. The mountains of Rhodes and Cyprus may be considered as its dependencies. The second of the three chains proceeds also into Asia Minor, to the northward of Taurus, and its eastern part corresponds with the "Anti-Taurus" of the ancients. Extending in different directions, and with many interruptions, it intersects all the interior of Asia Minor, and is ultimately divided into numerous branches, which terminate on the shores of the Archipelago. The third chain likewise extends into Asia Minor, along the southern coast of the Black Sea, at no great distance inland. Towards the south and south-east three other chains are detached from the central nucleus, two of which, however, may be considered as merely branches of the Taurus, while the third seems to be a prolongation of this chain itself. To the westward of the Euphrates, Taurus sends off several branches southward, the most westerly of which reaches the sea, and separates Syria from the ancient Cilicia. This is the "Amanus and Pierius" of the Latin geographers, but now bears the name of "Alma-dagh." It terminates between the Gulf of Scanderoon and the mouth of the Orontes; but is only divided by the narrow channel of that river from the "mountains of Syria," which may be considered as the prolongation of the branch of Taurus.

Commencing with the lofty peak of "Jebel-el Akral," (*Mons Cassius*), and "Mount St. Simeon," which connects them with Alma-dagh, the Syrian mountains extend southward, nearly parallel with the eastern shore of the Mediterranean Sea, under the names of "Jebel Akra, Jebel Chaksinah, Jebel Kraad, the mountains of the Nozaries, Lebanon," and many others. "Lebanon" forms two branches; the western being the "Libanus" of the Latins, which terminates on the coast near Sidon, while a branch extends southward through Judea, forming the watershed between the basin of the Jordan and the Mediterranean Sea; the eastern is the "Anti-Libanus," which extends under various names, and with several interruptions, into the deserts of Arabia, beyond the Dead Sea. The second chain is detached in the eyalet of Diyarbekr, extends into Mesopotamia, and terminates at the Euphrates, in the "mountains of Sinjar;" and seems to be the "Mons Masius" of the Latins. The third chain, the most remarkable of the three for its elevation and its length, is detached from Armenia to the south of the Lake of Van, and under the names of "Aglin-dagh, Elvend, mountains of Kurdistan, Louristan, Bukhtiari," &c. extends far to the south-east, forming the boundary between the plains of Assyria and Babylonia on the one

side, and the lofty table-land of Iran on the other. It seems to be finally lost in the deserts of Kerman. The northern part of the chain seems to correspond with the ancient "Niphates;" the southern prolongation with the ancient "Zagrus." Subordinate to this chain, and nearly parallel with it, is the long ridge of "Jebel Hamrin" or the Hills of Hamerun, which crosses the bed of the Tigris, above the  $35^{\circ}$  north latitude, and extend to the south-east, forming the northern border of the alluvial plains of Babylonia and Chaldæa. To the east of Zagrus, the numerous ridges which form a sort of net-work over the surface of Persia, may also be considered as dependancies of the Tauro-Caucasian system. From the east side of Armenia a lofty chain is detached to the south-east, which, under the name of "Elbûrz," passes to the south of the Caspian Sea, and terminates in Khor-assan, though it may be considered as prolonged in the "mountains of Nishabor," which rise in the same direction, after a little interruption, and are connected with the great chain of the Himalayas. To the north of Armenia, a chain stretches through the pashalics of Kars and Akhaltsike, in the latter of which it forms the southern boundary of Imeritia, and then stretches in a north-easterly direction, and joins the Caucasus in Georgia, forming there the watershed between the affluents of the river Rioni, which flows to the Black Sea, and the Kur, which flows to the Caspian.

The great range of "Caucasus," which forms the northern part of the Tauro-Caucasian system, extends along the north-eastern coast of the Black Sea, across the isthmus, and terminates in a series of low hills in the peninsular promontory of Abcheron, on the west side the Caspian Sea; but covers with its branches the "Dhagestan," or hill country, which extends to a considerable distance to the northward of Abcheron. The length of the principal chain of Caucasus exceeds 700 miles, while its breadth is only from 60 to 120. The loftiest summits are found near the middle of the chain, and are covered with perpetual snow. The snow-line along the chain varies from 10,000 to 11,000 feet above the level of the sea. The "mountains of the Crimea" are an orographic dependancy of Caucasus, in the line of which they lie, and from which they are separated only by the Strait of Yenikaleh, and the alluvial delta of the river Kouban.

The principal elevations in the Tauro-Caucasian system, are:—1. In Armenia and Asia Minor, "Mount Ararat:" 1st peak, 17,265, and 2d peak, 12,162; the "Supan-dagh," 9,500; the "Ali-ghuz," 12,000; the "Sevellan" and "Sahend," in Persia, 13,060? and 9,000?; the "Arjish-dagh," in the centre of Asia Minor, 13,000; "Olympus," 9,100; and "Ida," 5,435 feet above the level of the sea. The city of Erzeroum, the capital of Turkish Armenia, has an elevation of 6,114; Kharpout, of 5,032; Sivas, in the centre of Asia Minor, 3,894; and Kutahya, 6,000 feet. 2. In Syria, the "Jebel-el-Akral," at the mouth of the Orontes, 5,318 feet; "Lebanon," 11,000 feet; "Tabor," 2,053, and "Carmel," 2,250 feet. 3. In the Caucasus and Elbûrz Mountains: "Elbûrz," 17,706; "Kasibec," 15,345; and "Demavend," 14,700 feet.

The "Mountains of Arabia," though they may also be considered as part of the Tauro-Caucasian system, and are so classed by Balbi, yet seem to be really so little connected with it, that we shall be justified in treating them as a separate group. We know, indeed, very little about them. Arabia seems to be, like Persia, an immense table-land, surrounded and intersected by mountains, but with their elevation and direction we have little acquaintance. The best known ranges seem to be those which extend, at various distances, along the coasts of the Red Sea, the Arabian Sea, and

the Gulf of Oman, attaining an elevation between 6,000 and 9,000 feet, and forming the boundary of the table-land of the interior.

The "Mountains of India" are classed by Balbi as dependencies of what he calls the Altai-Himalayan system; but they are so completely separated from the Himalayas, that neither geographically nor orographically can we admit the correctness of his classification. The most northerly chain of the Indian Mountains, named "Aravulli," extends about 350 miles from north-east to south-west, through Rajpootana, with an average elevation of about 3,600 feet, and forms the western boundary of a hilly region, which sends its waters to the Ganges. The "Vindhya" and "Sautpoora Mountains" are two parallel ranges, which stretch from west to east, along the valley of the River Nerbuddah, and are connected at their eastern extremity with a mountainous region, which occupies the central portion of India, and terminates, on the one side, at Rajmahal on the Ganges, and on the other, near the sea-coasts of Orissa. Their average elevation does not exceed that of the Aravulli. The "Western Ghauts" extend in a continuous line along the south-western coast of India, from the valley of the River Tuptee to the valley of Coimbatore, where they are connected with the "Nilgherries," the loftiest mountains of the Peninsula. The "Eastern Ghauts" follow, in like manner, the line of the south-eastern coast of India, but form a less regular chain than those of the west. Both chains may be considered as prolonged by the hills, which extend southward from the valley of Coimbatore, and terminate at Cape Comorin; though it is rather with the eastern than with the western Ghauts that the latter seem to be connected. The "Mountains of Ceylon" form a detached group, of great elevation, in the centre of the island.

The "Japanese" or Maritime Chain includes all the mountains which are found in that long chain of islands, which extends from Kamtschatka to the Channel of Formosa; and should properly include the mountains of Kamtschatka also. The two extremities of the chain, the mountains of Kamtschatka and Formosa, seem to be its loftiest portions; the whole chain is a series of volcanoes.

The greatest elevations in this chain are those under the several names of "Klutchevskaja,"  $56^{\circ} 8'$  north latitude, 16,512 feet; "Koriatskaia,"  $58^{\circ} 19'$ , 11,215; "Kronotskaia,"  $54^{\circ} 8'$ , 10,625; and "Shivelutsh,"  $56^{\circ} 40'$ , in two peaks, respectively, 10,591 and 8,716 feet, above the level of the sea. All these are in Kamtschatka. The peak of Iseo has an elevation of 7,680 feet; and the mountains of Formosa probably 12,000 feet.

In proportion to its extent Asia contains very few volcanoes. The principal are found in Kamtschatka, of which the "Kluutchevskaja" or volcano of Tolbatschik, is the most formidable. Next to it are the "Avatsha" and "Kamtschatskaia," with eight smaller ones. In Indo-China, between Moeip and Tavoy, is the volcano "Djenkyet." The "Pe-shan," on the northern slope of the Teean-shan, ( $42^{\circ} 35'$  N. latitude, and  $80^{\circ}$  E. longitude,) and the "Ho-tcheou" upon its southern slope, ( $42^{\circ} 40'$  N. latitude, and  $90^{\circ}$  E. longitude,) are remarkable as being the most distant volcanoes from the sea yet known. According to the reports of the Chinese, the Pe-shan sends forth fire and smoke without intermission. It appears indisputably to have been, in the first century of our era, a volcano in the strictest sense of the word, vomiting forth torrents of lava. At present, however, it would appear to be rather a "solfatara," having for a long time ceased to eject lava; but such is the quantity of sal-ammoniac produced, that the inhabitants of the



surrounding country frequently pay their tribute to the emperor in that commodity. The mountain is full of caverns and crevices, which are so filled with fire during three-fourths of the year, as to present the appearance at night of being illuminated by thousands of lamps; and it is only in winter, when the snows have damped the heat, that the ammonia, which is in the form of stalactites, can be gathered. To the eastward of Peshan the whole northern slope of the Teean-shan presents volcanic phenomena. Lava and pumice stone are found there, and even considerable solfataras, which are called fiery places. The solfatara of "Urûmtsi" ( $46^{\circ}$  N and  $84^{\circ}$  E.) is five leagues in circumference, and in winter is covered with snow. The volcano of "Tûrfan" or Ho-chow, emits an uninterrupted column of smoke, which at night appears like a flaming torch. About 200 miles north of Urûmtsi, there is a hill whose sides, though they do not smoke, are very hot, and yield a considerable quantity of ammoniacal salts. Besides these places there is an insulated conical mountain, "Aral-tube," in the Lake Ala-kûl, which has been in a state of ignition in historical times. We are thus acquainted in the interior of Asia with a volcanic territory upwards of 2,500 square leagues in extent, distant 300 to 400 leagues from the sea, and occupying one half of the long valley between the Altai and Teean-shan. The chief seat of volcanic action seems to be in the Teean-shan, on both sides of which the country is very frequently desolated by earthquakes.

The Caspian Sea likewise appears to be surrounded by a volcanic territory. On the east side there are the hot springs of "Soussac" in the Karatau mountains, near the city of Turkestan; and on the south and west sides the two volcanoes "Demavend," and "Seiban-dagh," are still active; and there are several others in a quiescent state. The chain of the Caucasus abounds with trachytes, porphyries and warm springs; and numerous mud-volcanoes appear on the isthmus between the Black and Caspian seas.

But it is in the islands that the volcanoes are most formidable. A continuous line of volcanic action commences on the north with the Aleutian islands, and extends first eastward for 230 miles, and then southward without interruption to the Moluccas, where it branches to the east and north-west. This belt commences at the peninsula of Alaska in America, traverses the Aleutian Islands, and Kamtschatka; and then forms a train of volcanic mountains through the long line of the Kurile Islands, nine of which have been known to be in eruption, besides Jesso and Nippon, where the burning vents are very numerous, slight motions of earthquakes almost incessant, and violent shocks experienced at distant intervals. Between the Japanese and Philippine Islands the communication is preserved by several small insular vents. Sulphur Island, in the Loochoo cluster, emits sulphurous vapor, and Formosa suffers greatly from earthquakes; in Luzon are three active volcanoes, and in others eruptions and earthquakes are not unfrequent. The belt is then prolonged through Sanguir and the north-east end of Celebes, by Ternate and Tidore, to the Moluccas, whence a great transverse line runs westward through Java and Sumatra, ending with Barren Island, a very active volcano in the Bay of Bengal. In Java alone there are 38 large volcanic mountains. The volcanic belt is prolonged in another direction through Borneo, Celebes, Banda, Papua and various other islands in the Pacific.

The vast deserts and steppes that cover so large a portion of Asia form at the same time one of its most distinguishing features. With little excep-

tion all the northern part of Siberia may be regarded as an immense steppe, interspersed with marshes; and in the south are the steppes and salt plains of "Kirghiz," north-east of Lake Aral; "Ischim," between the Irtysh and the Tobol; and the "Baraba," between the Irtysh and the Obi.

But the most remarkable deserts are those sandy plains which occupy the greater part of the south-west and central regions of the continent, extending with little interruption from the Atlantic to the north-east of China, a distance of more than 9,000 miles. This tract does not indeed form one continuous desert; for, besides the "oases" with which it is sprinkled, it is interrupted in the eastern part of Africa by the narrow valley through which the Nile conveys its tropical waters to the Mediterranean. A little further east it is nearly intersected by the Red Sea, which leaves only the narrow isthmus of Suez to connect the deserts of Africa and Asia. To the east of Arabia it is again interrupted to a considerable extent by the Persian Gulf and the plains of the Euphrates and the Tigris. To the east of Persia the Indus separates the desert of Beloochistan from that of north western India, while the Himalaya and other mountains form a complete separation between the deserts of Persia and India, and those which occupy the interior of Asia. This desert spreads over Arabia to an extent of 1,000 miles in length and 700 or 800 in breadth, exhibiting everywhere the same character as the African Sahara. The deserts of Persia, nowhere so extensive as those of Arabia, are more or less interrupted by mountains and river valleys, which form the inhabited portions of the country.

The deserts of the interior bear the names of Cobi or Gobi, Shamo and Tola; but their topography is little known. "Gobi," in the Mongol language, signifies a naked desert, and is equivalent to the "Shamo" or "Han-hai" of the Chinese. They continue almost continuously 2,000 miles in length, with a breadth varying from 200 to 300 miles. Travellers represent these deserts as a succession of sandy plains and barren mountains, almost destitute of water, and uninhabited even by beasts and birds. Mr. Bell, who accompanied the Russian Embassy in 1720, says that he was 28 days in passing from the river Tula on its northern border to the first green land on the south side, where he found a small brook of water and some Mongolian huts surrounded with cultivated fields. "The desert exhibits everywhere a level surface, mostly overgrown with rank grass, and occasionally interrupted by patches of sand and gravel; but in the middle there was a belt of sand 20 miles across, so loose as to be blown about and raised into hillocks by every blast of wind." During a later Russian Embassy, in 1830, a series of heights was ascertained across this part of the desert, on the track from Kiakhla to Pekin.

In western Asia the deserts of "Turkestan" occupy the greater part of the surface of that country; the only cultivated portions of it, below the mountains, being the narrow strips of land along the rivers, within reach of irrigation by their waters. The northern parts form steppes, which afford pasturage to the herds and flocks of the wandering Kirghiz. In the central region, along the Aral, are the two extensive sandy deserts of "Kara-koum" (black sand,) and "Kizil-koum" (red sand,) and in the southern region the wide spread deserts of Turcomania, extending from the Caspian Sea along the northern boundary of Khorassan.

On the northern side of the Altai range, and, indeed, over the whole of the northern part of Europe and Asia, the elevation of the ground is nowhere considerable. It is possible to travel from the Scheldt to the Ienisei, over

80° of longitude, without meeting a single elevation exceeding 1,200 or 1,300 feet; and even on the south side of the Altai, along the banks of the Irtysh, and through a great part of the Steppe of Khirgiz, the elevation has been found scarcely to exceed 1,900 feet. Of the countries lying between the Altai and Himalaya mountains we have little knowledge; but it is well ascertained, that with slight exceptions, the whole forms one extensive plain or valley, which in former ages has constituted the basin of a vast sea. The whole region, indeed, between the parallels of 30° and 50°, and between the meridian of Lake Baikal and the Bolor range, the elevation probably does not exceed that of the plains of Bavaria (1,660 feet,) of Spain (2,240 feet,) and of Mysore (3,000 feet.) The interior of the peninsular region, which extends from the Archipelago to the Caspian Sea, is occupied throughout nearly its whole length by the high regions of Phrygia and Armenia, which are not, indeed, exactly a table-land, but consist rather of a series of valleys and plains, of various degrees of elevation, from about 2,000 to 7,000 feet above the level of the sea. The peninsula of Arabia is also, in like manner, almost entirely occupied by table-land, which in the north slope towards the Persian Gulf and the Euphrates. The interior of Persia is of like character, but intersected with a network of mountains, and leaving only small strips of lowland on the borders of the adjacent seas. The table-land of Taxila, which occupies the northern half of the Punjaub, has considerable elevation; the table-land of Malwah, supported on the south and west by the Vindhya and Aravulli mountains, has an elevation of about 2,000 feet, but slopes north-eastward to the Jumna; the table-land of the Deccan, supported on the west by the "Ghauts," has an elevation of about 2,000 feet, but slopes considerably to the eastward, in which direction all its waters flow, and the table-land of Mysore, lying between the angle formed by the meeting of the eastern and western Ghauts, exceeds 3,000 feet.

But the most singular feature in the formation of Asia is the depression of considerable portions of its surface below the general level of the ocean. The Caspian Sea, and a considerable country around it, have been found to be several feet below the level of the Black Sea. The depression of the Dead Sea and the valley of the Jordan is still greater. North-east of the Caspian and Aral commences a very remarkable region of small lakes, which seems to indicate, at some remote era, the existence of a great mass of water in the interior of Siberia, communicating with the lakes Aksakal and Aral. It extends to the north-east, between the rivers Tobol and Ischim, and may be traced eastward beyond Omsk, through the Steppe of Baraba to Sourgout beyond the Obi, through the country of the Ostiaks of Beresov, and even to the marshy shores of the Arctic Ocean. The geological deduction is, that it was formerly a vast sea, of which the Caspian and the smaller lakes are the remaining portions only. The Chinese have also a tradition of the existence of a salt lake in the interior of Siberia, which traversed the course of the river Ienisei, and the salt plain which surrounds the oasis of Hami is expressly called by them Han-hai, or the Dried-up Sea.

The Pacific Ocean, which divides Asia from America, nowhere reaches the coasts of the continent, but is separated from them by several chains of islands which, with the coast, form a number of smaller sea-basins. The sea of Kamschatka, on the north-east, is enclosed by the Aleutian Islands; the Kurile Islands separate the sea of Ochotsk; the sea of Japan lies between the continent and those large islands which form the Japanese Empire; and the entrance of the Yellow Sea of China is obstructed by the Loochoo, and several smaller groups. Further south is the Chinese Sea.

The eastern boundary of this basin is formed by the Philippines, and the islands of Palawan and Borneo. The formation of these seas, however, is partly owing to those large peninsulas, which project from the continent, and approach more or less near the enclosing islands. The Southern Seas, on the contrary, have no protection from the ocean, and consist of several gulfs, which deeply penetrate into the land, and thus form extensive peninsulas. The principal of these are the Bay of Bengal, the Arabian Sea, the Persian Gulf, the Gulf of Oman, and the Red Sea, the latter of which separates Asia from Africa. The peninsulas on this coast are those of Farther India, Hindostan, and Arabia: the first of which has an area of more than 800,000 square miles, and the two last more than one million each. The most remarkable straits on the eastern and southern coasts are Behring's Straits, which divide Asia from the north-west coast of America; the Strait of Formosa, between China and Formosa; the Strait of Malacca, between Malaya and Sumatra; the Strait of Oman, the entrance of the Persian Gulf; the Strait of Babelmandel, which connects the Red Sea with the Gulf of Arabia. Where Asia approaches Europe we meet the large Peninsula of Asia Minor, covering a surface of more than 200,000 square miles, which being surrounded by the Mediterranean and Black Seas, and extending south to the Red Sea and Persian Gulf, affords the greatest facility for intercourse between the two continents, both by sea and land. The northern coast, indented with numerous great bays or estuaries, and having several prominent tongues of land, would give great advantages to maritime intercourse with other countries, did not the severity of the climate, and the accumulated ice, render them inaccessible all the year round.

Asia has some of the largest rivers of the world, which are only exceeded in length by the mighty streams which drain the New World. They may be arranged into classes, according as they flow into the seas and oceans which surround the continent, or into inland lakes. The Obi, with its affluents; the Irtysh, the Ischin, and the Tobol; the Ienisei, and its affluents; the Tunguska, Angara, &c.; the Olenets; the Lena; the Indigirka, and the Kolima, which rise in the Altai Mountains and the northern plains of Siberia, all flow to the Arctic Ocean. The chief rivers flowing to the seas on the east side of the continent, are the Meinam and Maykuang into the Chinese Sea; the Yang-tse-kiang, and the Hoang or Whang-ho into the Yellow Sea; and the Amour or Saghalien into the Sea of Okhotsk. The Euphrates and Tigris fall into the Persian Gulf; the Indus into the Arabian Sea; the Ganges, the Brahmapootra, and Irawaddy, into the Bay of Bengal: all of which communicate directly with the Indian Ocean. The Rioni and Kizil-Irmak fall into the Black Sea; the Sarabat and Meinder into the Archipelago; and the Aazi or Orontes into the Levant. The Oural, on the western border; the Kur and Aras, and the Kizilozen, empty into the Caspian Sea; the Amû or Oxus, and Sihoon or Jaxartes, into the Sea of Aral; and several others into the smaller salt lakes, in the vicinity of the Caspian and Aral.

The Caspian Sea is the largest salt lake in the world, and is, perhaps, one of the most curious developments of nature. It has no outlet whatever to the ocean; and, what is more remarkable, is the fact of its being considerably below the level of the ocean. The Sea of Aral, lying to the east of the Caspian, is less salt than that sea, but its waters are slightly bitter. These seas contain a variety of fish, principally salmon, sturgeons and ster

let, and perhaps all the species inhabiting the Black Sea; and their shores abound in aquatic fowl, storks, herons, bitterns, spoonbills, red geese, red ducks, &c. The climate is exceedingly unhealthy, and in the summer season even the natives remove from the coasts. Further east there are many smaller lakes similar in character to the above, and which receive rivers, but have no outlets. The principal of these are the Balkashi-noor or Lake Tenghiz; the Alak-tou-gûl; the Khassel-bash; the Ubsa; the Aral-noor; the lakes Bosteng and Lob; the Tengri-noor and Bouki-noor, all in Central Asia; and the Pangkung, in Thibet. Towards the west also are several, as the lakes of Ooroomiah, and Van in Armenia; the great salt lake of Koch-Hissar, in Asia Minor; and the Dead Sea, in Palestine. All these lakes, or seas as they are sometimes called, are salt; the waters of some of them extremely so, and even bitter.

The fresh water lakes of Asia are small in comparison to those even of Europe, but they all have outlets. The principal are:—the Baikal in Eastern Siberia; Zaisang, formed by the Irtysh; the Lake of Erivan, in Armenia; the Lake of Tiberias, or Sea of Galilee, in Palestine; the Po-yang and Tong-ting, in China; and the Rhawanrhad, Manasarowara, and Paltee, in Thibet.

The islands belonging to Asia are large and important, and have chiefly, especially those of the Indian Ocean, become very valuable to the commerce of the world. They are mostly of volcanic origin. The principal are:—Cyprus, in the Levant, and a number of small islands in the Archipelago; Ceylon, Andaman, and the Nicobar Islands, in the Bay of Bengal; Hainan and Formosa, in the Chinese Sea; the Majicosima, Loo-choo, Japan, and Kurile Islands, in the Pacific Ocean; and others of less note, as the Maldives and Lacadives, in the Arabian Gulf, and the New Siberian group in the Arctic Ocean, opposite the estuary of the Lena. These will be more fully described elsewhere.

Nearly all the circumstances which unite in giving a mild climate to Europe, are reversed in the case of Asia. Its northern boundary extends beyond the parallel of  $70^{\circ}$ , and between the mouths of the Ienisei and the Lena, reaches even to  $75^{\circ}$ ; it everywhere attains the winter limit of the polar ice, and during the short summer of these high latitudes, there is only a narrow belt of water between the ice and the land. The north winds, unobstructed by mountains, blow over a plain of ice, and their cooling influence is not counterbalanced by hot deserts of sand in the southern portion of the continent; there being no land under the equator, opposite the length of Asia, except the narrow strips of Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, and Gilolo. Consequently, the Asiatic countries situate in the temperate zone, are not warmed by ascending currents of heated air, similar to those which rise from the deserts of Africa, and exert so beneficial an influence on the climate of Europe. The position of the great mountain chains, and the general elevation of the country, likewise contribute to diminish the temperature; the Himalayas and Kwan-lun presenting an effectual barrier to the warm winds in their progress from the equator, while the high plains and groups of mountains, which occupy the centre of the continent, retain the snow till late in the summer, and produce descending currents of air which lower the temperature of the surrounding countries. There is, moreover, no sea of any considerable extent on the western side; and consequently the western, or predominating winds, are land winds, whose severity is increased by the great enlargement of the continent towards the north.

The result of all these circumstances is, that the eastern part of Europe, and the whole of Asia to the north of the  $35^{\circ}$  N. lat. have what Humboldt calls an *excessive* climate, meaning by that term a climate in which the temperatures of summer and winter differ greatly from the mean temperature of the year, or, in plainer language, where the winter is excessively cold, and the summer excessively hot. In Europe, on the contrary, there is less difference between the temperatures of the summer and winter, and both approach nearer the mean temperature of the year.

The height of the snow-line on the mountains of Asia has hitherto been very imperfectly determined; but in a general view, it may be regarded as much greater than in Europe, or even in America, under the same parallel. The limit of perpetual snow on Mount Elbûrz is 11,000 feet, while on the Pyrenees, under the same latitude, it is only 8,690 feet. The great influence of local circumstances on the position of the snow-line, is strikingly exemplified in the case of the Himalayas. On the south side of these mountains, under the parallel of  $30^{\circ}$  or  $31^{\circ}$ , the snow line is estimated at 12,400 feet; while on the north side, towards Thibet, snow disappears in summer at the enormous height of more than 20,000 feet. This remarkable difference is ascribed by Humboldt to the powerful radiation which takes place in summer from the high plains of Thibet, to the small quantity of snow which falls in winter, when the temperature sinks below  $10^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit, and to the serenity and clearness of the atmosphere on the northern side of the mountain chain; circumstances which, at the same time, increase the radiation from the plains, and facilitate the transmission of the heat to the higher regions.

The effect of the very diversified local circumstances of the Asiatic continent, an example of which we have just now given, is such, that its *physical climates*, generally speaking, seldom correspond to the astronomical climates.

There is no precious or useful mineral which is not found in this immense continent. The following table exhibits the countries which are most distinguished for their mineral wealth:

## MINERALOGICAL TABLE OF ASIA.

DIAMONDS.....	India, ( <i>Nizam, Baladghaut region, Bundelcund, Sumbhulpour, Gundur, Ceylon</i> ;) Asiatic Russia, ( <i>Perm and Orenberg</i> .)
OTHER PRECIOUS STONES...	Birmah; Siam; India; Asiatic Russia, ( <i>Perm, Orenberg, Tomsk, Irkutsk, &amp;c.</i> ;) Chinese Empire, ( <i>China, &amp;c.</i> ;) Persia, ( <i>Khorassan, &amp;c.</i> ;) Independent Turkestan, ( <i>Badakshan</i> .)
GOLD.....	Japan, ( <i>Nippon, Sado, &amp;c.</i> ;) Chinese Empire, ( <i>Thibet, Yun-nan, &amp;c., Country of the Lolos, Hai-nan</i> ;) Asiatic Russia, ( <i>Perm, Orenberg, Tomsk, &amp;c.</i> ;) Birmah; Anam, ( <i>Tonkin, Cochín China, &amp;c.</i> ;) Siam; Malaya; Assam, &c.
SILVER.....	China; Russia, ( <i>Tomsk, Irkutsk, &amp;c.</i> ;) Japan, ( <i>Bungo</i> ;) Ottoman Empire, ( <i>Armenia, Asia Minor</i> .)
TIN.....	Birmah; Siam; Malaya, ( <i>Ligor, Queda, Selenga, &amp;c.</i> ;) China; Anam.
MERCURY.....	China; Thibet; Japan; India; Ceylon.
COPPER.....	Japan, ( <i>Sourounga, Atsingo, Kuno-kuoni, &amp;c.</i> ;) Russia, ( <i>Perm, Orenburg, Tomsk, Georgia, &amp;c.</i> ;) Ottoman Empire, ( <i>Asia Minor, Armenia</i> ;) Chinese Empire, ( <i>Yun-nan, Kouei-cheou, Thibet</i> ;) Anam; India, ( <i>Nepaul, Agra, Ajimere, Nellore, &amp;c</i> ;) Persia, ( <i>Azerbijan</i> .)

IRON.....	Russia, ( <i>Perm, Orenburg, Tomsk, Irkutsk</i> ;) India, ( <i>Cashmere, Nepaul, Bengal, Bahar, Oude, Agra, Berar, Nellore</i> ;) China, ( <i>Shensi, Thibet, Bootan</i> ;) Siam; Anam, ( <i>Tonkin, &amp;c.</i> ;) Ottoman Empire, ( <i>Diyarbekr</i> ;) Afghanistan; Seik Territory, ( <i>Peshawer</i> ;) Persia, ( <i>Fars</i> ;) Japan.
LEAD.....	China; Russia, ( <i>Irkutsk, Tomsk, Georgia</i> ;) Siam; Japan, ( <i>Jeso</i> ;) Persia, ( <i>Fars</i> ;) Arabia, ( <i>Muscat</i> ;) Ottoman Empire, ( <i>Asia Minor, Armenia</i> .)
COAL.....	Chinese Empire, ( <i>The Northern Provinces of China</i> ;) Ottoman Empire, ( <i>Syria, near Beyrout, &amp;c.</i> ;) India, ( <i>Bengal, Cutch, Valley of the Nerbuddah, &amp;c.</i> )
SALT.....	Chinese Empire, ( <i>Pe-che-le, and other Provinces of China Proper</i> ;) India, ( <i>Gujerat, Ajimere, Bengal, Lahore, Allanaabad, Agra, Orissa, Coromandel, Arracan, Ceylon, &amp;c.</i> ;) Russia, ( <i>Steppe of Ischim, Baraba, &amp;c., Lakes of Koriakov, not far from the Irtysh, Lake Inder, &amp;c.</i> ;) Shirwan; Armenia; Persia; Arabia, ( <i>Yemen</i> ;) Ottoman Empire, ( <i>Anatolia, Cyprus, &amp;c.</i> )

The vegetation is extremely rich and various. All the natural families of plants appear to have representatives in Asia, for the vast extent of the continent includes climates of the most opposite character. From the lowly vegetation which composes the Arctic flora, to the gigantic trees and generally luxuriant vegetation of the Indian regions, we find in Asia every intermediate kind. Sometimes the extremes appear to exist even in the same country; for example, where the Himalayas present an Arctic vegetation in the higher regions, while, not far below, the vegetation of warm climates is found in full luxuriance. But most of the countries of Asia have a homogeneous and characteristic vegetation of their own. To attempt, however, to particularise them, would be an idle work; the bare enumeration of them might fill our volume, but would contribute little to the edification of our readers. We shall, therefore, confine our notice here to a few plants of the highest value, not only in the countries which produce them, but in the most distant regions of the earth.

Of all the productions of the vegetable kingdom, that which has been the greatest favorite with man in every age is the *vine*; the juice of which is sought after in every country which civilization has reached. It is not, however, a very general production of the earth; the cultivation of it is confined to narrow limits, for excess of heat seems as unfavorable to its growth as too much cold. Its southern limit is where the mean temperature of the climate is between  $69^{\circ} 8'$  and  $71^{\circ} 6'$  Fahrenheit; and its northern limit,  $47\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  or  $48^{\circ}$ , where the temperature of the coldest month does not fall below  $34^{\circ}$ . It is only within the middle regions of the temperate zone that the vine comes to perfection, but within those limits it is found throughout western Asia. The finest grapes are produced in Asia Minor, Syria, and Palestine; but the vine is still found in its wild and native state in the forests of the ancient Colchis, (at the eastern end of the Black Sea,) climbing to the tops of the loftiest trees. Farther east, the grapes and the wines of Shiraz and Mazanderan enjoy the highest repute in Persia. Vines are also found native along the upper banks of the Oxus, in Kashgar to the east of the Bolor, in Kunawar, the British portion of Little Thibet, and also in Malwah or Central India. They are also cultivated in the gardens of H'lassa in Great Thibet; and in China, on the shores of the Eastern Ocean, the vine is as plentiful, and the luxury of wine-drinking is as highly appreciated, as in Europe or America. In France, Germany, and Hungary, the vine is the produce of art; farther south, and in the regions emphatically called *the East* the vines are to be seen in their full and native luxuriance, as

delightful to the eye as their produce is grateful to the palate. In all ages the vine has been a favorite theme with the poets of the East. The wine-bibbing Anacreon is notorious, and Hafiz, the national lyric poet of Persia, avows himself a most devout admirer of this glorious beverage; and, indeed, the wine of Shiraz, the place of his birth and of his burial, is so highly esteemed, that the Persians say that if Mohammed, (who forbade the use of wine to his disciples,) had tasted the pleasures of Shiraz, he would have prayed God to make him immortal there.

Next in repute to the vine is the olive, which is likewise confined to temperate climates, and is indigenous to Syria, along the eastern shores of the Black Sea, and at Tukht-i-Suleiman, near the Indus. The cultivated olive is easily reared in all parts along the shores of the Levant, which are free from the visitation of frosty winds. It produces a very fine oil, which is in general use in all the countries where it is grown; and the history of the tree appears to be as old as the human race: for it was the leaf of an olive tree plucked off that Noah's dove brought to him in the ark.

Tea, which affords a wholesome and exhilarating beverage to all the nations of the eastern, central, and northern regions of Asia, and has become a necessary of life in Britain and the United States, is produced abundantly in the southern provinces of China; the best is grown upon the hills of the province of Foki-en. It has also been lately discovered to be indigenous in Assam, within the limits of the British territories, and has been found to be perfectly adapted to the soil and climate of the Nilgherries in Southern India.

Rice is a necessary, and indeed the very staff of life, to the Hindoos, Indo-Chinese, and Chinese, who value it so highly that they pity the Europeans for having no rice at home, and wonder how they can exist without it. It is produced abundantly in the well-watered plains of those countries, and requires great heat as well as abundant moisture to bring it to perfection. The same character is enjoyed by the date tree in Arabia, and the neighboring hot and sandy countries of the south-west. Its fruit there forms a principal article of food; and the simple people there wonder how other nations contrive to live without it. But for more detailed accounts of these and of the other vegetable productions of Asia, we refer to our special descriptions of the countries into which the continent is divided.

The zoology of Asia presents a prodigious catalogue; and in regard to animal life, the country may be divided into three great zones, co-terminate with the mountains, which form the barriers. In the northern zone, the river banks and the vast forests of Siberia harbor innumerable troops of rein-deer, elks, foxes, bears, gluttons, and several species of martens and squirrels. Along the shores of the Arctic sea, the great polar bear preys on every thing living, and in the waters of the ocean are found seals and various kinds of cetacea. In Central Asia, which is composed of high mountains and extensive sandy plains, we find the Bactrian or double-humped camel, the wild horse, several kinds of horse-tailed bees (whose flowing tails are the ensigns of military rank throughout the East), the antelope, and the yellow buck. Panthers are found in the western regions, and also a singular species of cat, the manul, the original of the Angora cats. The Indian tiger has been seen as far north as the head waters of the Obi, and the Altai mountains. Tigers also abound in Mongolia, where they are hunted every year by the Emperor of China. Troops of several species of dogs, jackals and wolves prey upon the antelopes, asses and horses. All



the mountains are inhabited by the musk animal: the Altai by the "argali," or Siberian sheep; the southern mountains by the wild goat; and Caucasus by the egagre and the chamois. The western prolongation of this zone, which extends over Persia and Arabia, is overrun by antelopes and gazelles, lions, panthers, caracals and other sorts of cats, jackals and monkeys. The mountains and table lands produce also the "onager," or wild ass, the original of those beautiful and fleet asses so much esteemed in the East. In the southern zone, however, animal life is the most prolific. Here various species of the antelope and deer are found, and in Thibet the blue antelope, whose horns, which fall annually, have more than once reminded travellers of the fabulous unicorn. There is also the "chitkaru," with four horns. In Bengal, is the charming white-spotted axis, and in the forests is found the "jungle cow," the wild original of the domestic beeves of India. Fierce tigers ravage Hindostan, and the warm countries east and south. In the same region is found the black-skinned buffalo, with horns turned back, both wild and tame, delighting in the muddy banks of the rivers, lakes and seas. Between the Ganges and the Indus, the forests abound with squirrels, peacocks, pheasants and jungle-cocks. Several species of bears inhabit the forests among the Ghauts. The elephant and one-horned rhinoceros also inhabit the forests; but it is in the countries south-east of Hindostan that these animals attain their largest size. The tapir is found between Malacca and China; and ourangs, gibbins, and various other kinds of monkeys. In the Ganges alone, 250 kinds of fish have been described by Buchanan, which furnish abundance of food for the alligators, with which its waters abound. The seas of India swarm with myriads of the finny tribes of every species, and the testacea contribute many luxuries to the inhabitants. The whole number of known species of birds is 937, of which 621 are peculiar to Asia. Every zone has its peculiar species, and many are of the most beautiful plumage. Gigantic vultures tyrannize over the banks of the Ganges, where are likewise found great numbers of eagles, falcons, buzzards and screech-owls. Swarms of paroquets, of every variety of color, inhabit the continent and neighboring islands. The southern countries of Asia produce reptiles, many of which are armed with the most fatal poisons; they are all hideous to the sight, and some are of prodigious size and muscular strength. Beyond the Altai chain, however, they are scarcely ever found. All sorts of insects, some very noxious and destructive, swarm in the southern regions; and even in Siberia, during its short summers, the mosquito and other troublesome species abound. But the most mischievous of all these winged creatures is the locust, which appears occasionally in the sandy regions of north-western India, and is found in countless swarms in Arabia and Syria, and often penetrates into south-eastern Europe, spreading destruction wherever it goes.

The elephant is pre-eminent among the domestic animals, but it is rarely found in the mountain regions of the north. The camel is found over a far wider range of country. The Bactrian camel is comparatively rare, and seems to be confined to the great deserts of north-eastern Asia. The one-humped species, usually misnamed the dromedary, but in fact the real camel, is spread over Arabia, Persia, Western India and Northern Africa, where it is the common beast of burden. The dromedary, properly so called, or the racing camel, is only a variety of the latter species, of lighter form and better suited for rapid travelling. The other domestic animals of southern and western Asia are horses, asses, buffaloes, beeves, sheep and

goats; of the central and eastern regions, chiefly horses, cattle and sheep; the "yak" of Thibet and Pamer, and the bushy-tailed bull of Thibet, seem to supply the place of the camel among the mountains. In the rigorous climates farther north, the reindeer furnishes the people with food and transport, and also in one part of the year with dress. In Kamtschatka, and other north-eastern regions, dogs are trained to draw sledges in winter over the frozen snow.

Not only the numerical majority of the human race, but also its greatest variety in the species, is found within the limits of Asia. The tribes and nations into which mankind is here divided are very numerous, but of these, the five principal races, the Hindoos, the Chinese, the Tartars or Tartars, the Arabs, and the Persians, seem to have divided among them, as a kind of inheritance, the continent and its adjacent islands, and still occupy the greater part of them. The origin of these races is buried in the remotest antiquity. The Hindoos and Arabs are generally considered as belonging to the Caucasian or white race of mankind, though in respect of language they are quite different; the former being allied to the Indo-Germanic family, and that of the latter being decidedly of Semetic origin. The ancient Medes and Persians seem to have belonged to the Indo-Germanic branch, but the modern Persians are a very mixed race, formed by the commingling of Persians, Arabs, Turks, Tartars, Mongols, and natives of the Caucasian isthmus. The Tartars differ entirely from the Hindoos and Arabs in feature, complexion, and form, as in manners and language. They all speak the Toorkee or Turkish language, and form the majority of the people of Hindostan, the western part of Chinese Tartary, and the southern provinces of Russia—are spread in various tribes throughout Persia, and constitute the original stock of the Ottoman race, who have long been the dominant people in south-western Asia. The Chinese, according to the institutes of Menu, were originally a military tribe of the Hindoos, who, abandoning the ordinances of Brahma, migrated eastward, and laid the foundation of the Chinese Empire; but this theory seems to be improbable. The Chinese are unquestionably of the Mongolian family, and their monosyllabic language, and figurative alphabets, seem to have no analogy with any of the languages or alphabets of India. According to Balbi, all the families of Asia may be classed, according to their languages, into:—1. The "Semetic," comprising the Jews and Arabs. 2. The "Georgian," subdivided into Georgians, Mingrelians, Sevanes, and Lazes, living between the Caspian and Black Seas. 3. The "Persian," viz.: the Persians, Parsees or Guebbers, the Tadjiks, the Bukharians, the Khurds, the Lourees, the Affghans, and the Belootshees. 4. The "Hindoo," one of the most numerous families of the globe, comprising the Moguls, the Sheiks, the Bengalees, the Mahrattas, Singalese, in Ceylon; the people of the Maldives, and the Zingarees or Gipsies, a numerous tribe, scattered over Europe and Western Asia, and found also in some parts of Northern India. 5. The "Armenian," known as the Haikans, or Armenians proper, Abasses, and Natoukhashi. 6. The "Malabar," comprising the Malabars, the Tamuls, and the Telingas. 7. The "Chinese," the most numerous of all families, including the Chinese proper, the Birmans, Peguans, Siamese, the Anamites, the Cochinchinese, and the Coreans. 8. The "Japanese." 9. The "Tungouse," subdivided into the Mandchews, and the proper Tungouses, the former being the ruling class in China, and the most advanced in civilization, and whose language is now that of the Court of Peking.

10. The "Mongolian," viz. the Mongols, Kalmuks, and Burates. 11. The "Toorkee," comprising the Ottomans, the Usbecks, the Turks of Siberia, Turkomans, and a number of wandering tribes, chiefly in the west of Asia, and on the confines of Europe. 12. The "Samoied," in the north. 13. The "Ienisseian," which belong to the Finnish stock. 14. The "Koriak," in the north-east. 15. The "Youkaghire." 16. The "Kamtschatdale." 17. The "Kurilian." 18. The "Ouralian or Tschude;" and 19. The "Malaysian," or the inhabitants of Malacca, and the neighboring islands.

But, besides these indigenous families, there are numerous colonies of Europeans in most parts of Asia; the Greeks, in the Ottoman Empire; the Russians, in Siberia; the English, Scotch, Irish, Portuguese, and a few French and Danes, in India; Dutch, in Ceylon, Java, and the Moluccas; and Spaniards, in the Philippines.

If we are to define a despot to be an absolute monarch, who disposes of the property, the honor, and the lives of his subjects at will, employing them with indefinite and uncontrolled authority, we nowhere, either in Europe or Asia, find sovereigns of this kind, notwithstanding the declamations to which the governments of many of those countries have been subject. Everywhere manners, ancient customs, received opinions, and even errors, form more embarrassing restraints upon power than written stipulations, which tyrants can so easily get rid of by force or fraud. It is only in some Moslem states, and particularly in Persia, that we meet with the most hateful despotism, and that degrading servility, which has been usually attributed to all the nations of Asia. The kings of Asia have been taken for despots, because they are approached on bended knee. They have, indeed, assumed to themselves the titles of gods upon earth, vicegerents of Allah, brothers of the sun and moon, asylums of the universe, and other similar designations and they have been considered as such, without the obstacles opposed to their *will* by religion, customs, manners, and prejudices, being taken into account. The governments of Ottoman Asia, Persia, Russia, Bukharia, and others, in Turkestan, India, China, Japan, and some of the islands, are despotisms, differing only in degree; but there seems to be a barrier in all, over which the monarch dare not, or is unwilling to leap.

Asia likewise contains nations whose governments may be compared to those of European kingdoms of the middle ages. Such were the Mahrattas, before the downfall of the Peishwa, and the Affghans, before the subversion of the Kingdom of Cabul; and such are still the Belootshies, the Mongols, the Kalmucs, the Manchoos, several Turkee tribes, and some nations of Caucasians, particularly the Circassians and Abassians. Even the Empire of Japan is, properly speaking, nothing else than a feudal monarchy. Some nations are entirely free, as the Bedouins, the Kurds, and several tribes of Caucasus and Syria. The small nomadic nations, and many of the Arab tribes, have a pastoral or patriarchal government, which is generally hereditary in certain families; others are governed by elders, and form republics. Thibet, Boutan, and parts of Arabia, have a sort of theocratic government, the pontiffs of which are considered as emanations of the Deity himself. In general, indeed, we may say, that Asia affords examples of every possible kind of government, from the most licentious republicanism to the most atrocious despotism.

## A SUMMARY VIEW OF THE STATES OF ASIA.

GEOGRAPHICALLY ARRANGED.

NAMES OF STATES.		Area in square miles.	POPULATION.	Population in sq. mile.	CAPITALS.
Turkish Empire.	Asia Minor.....	250,000	4,350,000	17	Aleppo.....250,000
	Armenia.....	36,000	2,300,000	63	
	Mesopotamia.....	160,000	5,400,000	33	
	Syria.....	48,000	1,500,000	31	
Arabia.....		834,400	10,000,000	12	Mecca.....40,000
Persia.....	Iran.....	480,000	9,500,000	19	Teheran.....25,000
Hindoostan.	Affghanistan.....	240,000	8,000,000	33	Cabul.....60,000
	Beloochistan.....	180,000	1,200,000	6	Kelat.....25,000
	Bengal Presidency.....	351,894	60,000,000	170	Calcutta.....230,000
	Madras ".....	121,982	16,000,000	131	Madras.....700,000
British India.	Bombay ".....	62,542	7,000,000	112	Bombay.....230,000
	Subject and Protected States.....	510,750	38,875,000	74	.....
	Independent States.....	248,944	10,250,000	42	.....
	French Colonies.....	530	210,000	396	Pondichery.....40,000
Ceylon.	Danish ".....	93	35,000	374	Serampore.....13,000
	Portuguese ".....	1,200	500,000	416	Pangi.....
Maldives and Laccadives.....		24,664	1,250,000	51	Colombo.....31,549
Further India.	Birmah.....	200,000	8,000,000	40	Ava.....150,000
	Siam.....	220,000	2,790,000	13	Bangkok.....100,000
	Anam.....	120,000	10,000,000	83	Hue.....30,000
	Laos, Country of the.....	280,000	2,800,000	10	Zemmai.....35,000
Chinese Empire.	Malay States.....	72,000	200,000	3	.....
	British Territories.....	35,160	242,000	7	Amherst.....1,000
	China Proper.....	1,300,000	363,000,000	270	.....
	Manchuria.....	700,000	7,000,000	10	Pe-king....2,000,000
Corea.....	Mongolia.....	1,400,000	14,000,000	10	.....
	ili.....	900,000	9,000,000	10	.....
Ladak.....	Tibet.....	700,000	7,000,000	10	.....
Loo-choo Islands.....		30,000	15,000,000	187	King-kai-tao.....
Turkistan.		1,200	180,000	6	Leh.....
	Bokhara.....	700,000	7,000,000	42	Kien-ching.....
	Khundüz.....			10	Bokhara.....150,000
	Badakshan.....				Khundüz.....1,500
Asiatic Russia.	Hizar, Koolab, &c.....				Fyzabad.....2,000
	Kokan.....			17	Hizar, &c.....
	Khiva.....				Marghilan.....
	Turkmania.....				Khiva.....20,000
Caucasian Provinces.	Georgia.....	200,000	3,400,000	17	Teflis.....30,000
	Shirvan.....				Baku.....3,500
	Armenia and Aberbijan.....				Erivan.....7,000
	Imeritia, Mingrelia.....				K'houthaisi...1,500
Siberia.....	Abassia.....	5,000,000	3,611,300	1	Anapa.....
	Circassia.....				Derbent.....22,000
	Daghestan, &c.....				.....
	Caucasus.....				.....
Japanese Empire.....		260,000	25,000,000	96	Tobolsk.....18,000
					Miyako.....500,000
Grand Total of Asia.....		17,500,000*	655,643,300	38	

\* This extent, though not corresponding to the aggregate amount of the areas given in the table, is considered as the most accurate approximation yet assumed. The whole table, indeed, can only be taken as approximation to accuracy.

## THE EMPIRE OF TURKEY,

(IN ASIA.)

EAST of the Bosphorus the Ottoman Empire stretches into Asia over an extensive country, bounded on the north by the Black Sea and the Caucasian provinces of Russia; on the east by Georgia and Persia; on the south and south-west by Arabia and the Mediterranean Sea, and on the west by the Archipelago, the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora and the Bosphorus. It is situated between  $30^{\circ}$  and  $42^{\circ}$  N. latitude, and between  $26^{\circ}$  and  $49^{\circ}$  E. longitude. Its greatest depth from north to south is 850 miles, and its greatest breadth from east to west about 1,200; but when measured diagonally from Constantinople to the mouth of the Tigris, the extent is 1,400, and from the southern border of Palestine to the north-east extremity of Turkish Armenia, about 1,100 miles. The superficial area is not accurately ascertained, but may be estimated at between 450,000 and 500,000 square miles.

From the earliest history of mankind this portion of the world has been the scene of prominent events. The Scriptures are its first annals, and profane writers all agree in acknowledging it to be the source of light and civilization. Nimrod, Ninus, Semiramis, the great empires which they have raised, those which have succeeded them, the heroes of Troy, the memorable reign of the Persians, the empire of Alexander, the Seleucidæ, the ferocious Mithridates, the renowned Zenobia, queen of Palmyra, the brilliant reign of the Khalifs of Bagdad—form but an imperfect summary of the great personages, and events of which this country has been the theatre, from the most remote period of which we have any account, to the fatal day on which the Turkish dominions seemed, as it were, to rise up in order to destroy its long celebrity. Here was founded the first great monarchy of the world. Here were Babylon, Nineveh, the empire of Nabonasser and the conquests of Cyrus; and here the Land of Promise—the Holy Land!—the history of whose people furnishes the theme of the Old Testament; and here it was that the Christian's Saviour was born, preached his ministry, and suffered for the sins and redemption of the human family. At a later period it formed one of the finest portions of the Roman empire. It then displayed numerous towns, embellished with all that the union of the arts could produce, and abounded with all the enjoyments of luxury. How great is the contrast at the present day! All the blessings of civilization, all the charms of social life, have disappeared under the devastating powers which oppress this now desolate country. The monuments are in ruins, the villages are abandoned, and a great part of the country given up to robbers, while the towns are filled with a vile and oppressed populace. The wandering tribes feed their flocks and herds, and plan their robberies upon those fields which were once covered with glory, and the ferocious Bedouins make abandoned temples the shelter for their thefts and crimes. Such is at this period the state of this classic soil, still covered with the finest remains of antiquity, and teeming with memorials of a grandeur and civilization such as the world never before saw, and to which modern times can produce no counterpart.

The Ottoman Empire in Asia is spread over at least three distinct geo-

graphical regions, viz : Asia Minor and Armenia ; the low countries watered by the Euphrates and Tigris ; and Syria, including Palestine.

“ Asia Minor and Armenia” form elevated table-lands, or a series of plains and valleys, some of which are 5,500 feet above the level of the sea, intersected and overtopped by mountains several thousand feet higher. These table-lands are fertile and abound in pastures, but the climate is cool, and in winter the country is covered deep in snow. They are separated from the low country on the Black Sea by ranges of lofty mountains, clothed with dense forests, and are difficult of access, except where the river valleys open a passage for their waters. From Armenia two ranges of high mountains proceed westward into Asia Minor ; the one, the ancient “ Taurus,” stretches parallel to the shores of the Mediterranean and divides into a number of branches, which, in the western part of the peninsula, form as many fertile valleys, watered by fine rivers ; and the other, the “ Anti-Taurus,” penetrates into the interior in a southwesterly direction, and there unites with several other lofty mountains which, under various names, occupy the country between the Kizil-Irmak and the Sea of Marmora. The central part of the peninsula, supported on all sides by those ranges, is very lofty, and the plains of Kutahya and Sivas many thousand feet above the level. Some of the valleys are so completely hemmed in as to have no outlet for their waters, and as a consequence large tracts are frequently inundated, and permanent lakes formed in the deeper depressions. The coasts on all sides are very irregular, and in some parts their mountain walls approach so near as to form bold promontories and headlands ; but in others some extensive lowlands intervene. The islands off the coast are generally of the same character with the mainland. The nucleus of the mountains consist of granite and other primitive rocks, but in various places these are associated with beds of marble and quartz, lime-stone and schists, tertiary and lacustrine marine deposits, igneous rocks, and recent aqueous accumulations. Volcanic rocks are of frequent occurrence ; the whole country between the Is-nik and Kutahya appears to consist of agate and chalcedony, the strata being beautifully varied ; and in the centre of the peninsula, the lofty peak of “ Arjish-dagh,” (ancient Argæus,) which rises to the elevation of 13,000 feet, consists entirely of volcanic rocks and scoriaceous cinders, having its sloping sides studded all around with numerous cones and craters. “ Hassan-dagh,” 8,000 feet high, and “ Kulah,” 2,780 feet, are both volcanic ; but the most remarkable volcanic region in Asia Minor is the district of “ Katakecaumené” or *burned up region*, 90 miles eastward from Smyrna. It occupies an area of about 150 square miles, and consists of volcanic mounds, which rise partly amidst the lacustrine limestone of the valley of the Hermus, and partly on the slope of the schistose hills, which form its southern border. The mounds consist of scorice and lava, and are referable to two epochs. The older cones are low and flat, and their craters marked only by slight depressions. They are covered with vineyards, which produce the Katakecaumené wine, which has been celebrated from the days of Strabo to the present time. The newer volcanoes, only three in number, though they have been extinct for 3,000 years, preserve all their characters unaltered ; the craters are perfectly defined, and their lava streams are black, rugged and barren.

The “ country watered by the Euphrates and the Tigris,” is bounded north by the table lands of Armenia and the lofty sides of Taurus ; on the east by the mountains of Kurdistan, &c., which divide it from the table land of Iran ; and on the west and south-west by Syria and the deserts

of Arabia; and on the south-east it scarcely touches the Persian Gulf. Including the hilly country of Taurus, this region is distinguished by its structure, its configuration, and its natural productions, into three zones or districts: by *structure*, into a district of metamorphic and plutonic rocks,—a district of sedimentary formations, and a district of alluvial deposits; by *configuration*, into a district of mountains,—of stony and sandy plains, and of low watery plains; and by *natural productions*, into a country of forest and fruit trees, and of pasturage and barren rocks,—a country where the mulberry, cotton, maize, tobacco, &c., flourish in luxuriance, and a country of date trees, rice and pasturage, or a land of saline plants, liquorice, reeds, sedges and rushes. The *first* of these districts comprises the hilly and mountainous country of Taurus and the plains of Diyarbekr; a country with a genial climate, and, where cultivated, fruitful in corn, wine and oil, and yielding numerous mineral treasures. The *second* district, comprising the plains of Mesopotamia and the country east of the Tigris, consists of cretaceous deposits, here and there interspersed with plutonic rocks. The character of the plains varies with the elevation and latitude, as well as from the quality of the soil and the presence or absence of moisture,—here is a stony wilderness, amidst which there is little or no cultivation, but where immense herds and flocks obtain a scanty subsistence,—and there fertile districts, the permanent residence of agricultural tribes. The climate is very dry, and subject to great variations in temperature, the thermometer during the year ranging from 12° to 115° in the shade. The cold increases from west to east, and the influence of the snow-clad mountains in the north is severely felt in the plains. There are few annual or tender plants in this region, and for two months in the year, October and November, vegetation is dormant,—every thing is burnt up, and no new forms appear; but after this period the rains commence to fall, and the brown and fallow ground changes, and grasses and flowers again enliven the scene of desolation, soon however, to be covered with snow or blasted by the winds of winter. The absence of trees on these great plains is a phenomenon difficult to be accounted for. The desert described by Xenophon, extending from Rehoboth to Khabour, still preserves the features of his day, “full of wormwood; and if any other kind of plants grow there, they have for the most part an aromatic odour.” Wild asses or horses are still met with; but ostriches are rare. The alluvial plain of Babylon and Chaldæa forms the *third* district. The plain, in its north-western or upper portion, has a slight but well-defined southerly inclination, with local sinkings above Felujah, undulates in the central districts, and then subsides into mere marshes and lakes. Numerous canals, extending from one river to another, at certain seasons inundate the whole country, and leave permanent marshes in some places. But the natural level is everywhere altered by artificial works, as mounds, walls, mud-ramparts and dykes. There is still some cultivation and irrigation; flocks pasture in meadows of coarse grass, and the dusky encampments of the Arabs are occasionally met with; but except on the banks of the Euphrates, there are few remains of the date groves, vineyards and gardens which adorned the country in the days of Xenophon. This character may vary in the several districts, but only in degree. Villages are numerous, but the population is scanty and dispersed.

“Kurdistan,” which formed the north-eastern portion of ancient Assyria, and extended also into Persia, presents an immense succession of hill and valley, with dells and plains of exhaustless fertility, and towering mountains.

The climate is excessively cold during the greater part of the year, and the hills are covered with snow for eight months.

"Syria," which lies to the west, bordering on the Mediterranean, is chiefly composed of desert and mountains, with some plains and valleys of great fertility towards the coast. Mount Taurus sends off several spurs into Syria, the principal and most westerly of which bears the names of "Alma-dagh" and "Jawur-dagh," which communicate near the mouth of the Orontes, and form the boundary between Syria and Asia Minor. On the south side of the mouth of the Orontes, "Jebel-el-Akral" rises abruptly to the height of 5,318 feet, and is continued to the east by "Jebel Chaksinah," and the hills of Antioch, as far as to the southern valley of the Orontes. To the south the hills of Antioch are continued by the "Jebel Kraad" to the "Nosairi mountains," which extend southward in connection with "Lebanon." About 34° N. lat. the chain divides into two ranges, the eastern and the western, the former being the "Libanus" and the latter the "Anti-Libanus" of the Greeks, which enclose between them the long narrow valley of "El Bekaa," or Hollow Syria. The western branch terminates near the sea coast, south of Sidon, while the eastern branch, in nearly the same parallel, divides again into two ridges, the one of which passes into Arabia along the eastern side of the valley of the Jordan. The other ends southward, along the western side of the Jordan, forming the watershed between the basin of the Dead Sea and the valleys that send their waters to the Mediterranean, and covering the interior of Judæa with a wilderness of barren mountains. "Mount Carmel" forms a bold promontory on the south-western side of the Bay of Acre, and has an extension south-east until it joins the mountains of Judæa. Further south, these mountains connect with the rocky chain of Arabia Petræa, and fill up the space between the Gulf of Suez and the Gulf of Akaba. The diverging range of the Libanus, which forms the north-eastern part of the valley of the Upper Jordan, was the "Hermon" of Scripture; and further south were the "Mountains of Gilead."

These mountain ranges form a number of valleys. "El-Ghab," or the valley of the Orontes, lies between the Nosairi mountains on the west, and the "Jebel-Shaehsabou" on the north-east. It is inhabited by a mongrel race of Arabs and Fellahs, who in winter live in the few villages scattered over it, and in summer retire with their flocks to the mountains, to seek for pasturage and avoid the swarms of flies and venomous reptiles of the valley. "El-Bekaa," (the *Κοιλε Συρια* of the Greeks, and *Cælo-Syria* of the Latins,) is a beautiful valley between the two branches of Lebanon, drained by the river Leitani. It is about 90 miles in length by 11 in average breadth, and is the richest and most beautiful part of Syria. The "Valley of the Jordan" is about 175 miles in length, and extends from the sources of that river to the extremity of the Dead Sea. "El-Ghor" and the "plain of Jericho" are dependencies of this valley. The whole is considerably below the level of the Mediterranean. The "valleys of Galilee" are generally small, but beautifully wooded; and between Galilee and the ridge of Mount Carmel lies the great "plain of Esdraelon," watered by the river Kishon. It is called in Scripture the valley of Jezreel and Megiddo; and is exceedingly fertile, and well adapted for corn growing, but it is uncultivated, and only affords a rich pasture for a few scattered herds. The "Plain of Haouran" lies to the south of Damascus, between Hermon and Gilead and the Jebel Haouran. It is famous for its wheat, and contains many scattered hummocks, which are the sites of villages. The plain is inhabited by



Druses, Turks, and Arabs, and is also visited in early spring and summer by the Bedouins. The rocky wilderness, "El Ludja," and the Jebel Haouran, comprehend all the uneven country which extends along the eastern side of the plain of Haouran, from near Damascus to Boszra, and is supposed to be the ancient Trachonitis. The plain of Haouran itself is the ancient Auranitis.

The great "Syrian Desert" and its borders are not a bare wide waste of sand, but much resembles the prairies of the western United States and the llanos of South America. Its surface consists generally of a fine black soil overgrown with tall coarse grass, and inhabited by antelopes, wild asses, and boars. In summer, however, the herbage is burnt up, and the animals are obliged to betake themselves to the borders of the cultivated country. In the interior, indeed, sandy tracts are to be met with, but even here a scanty herbage is found. Along the side of Syria are numerous ranges of hills, which divide the country into small plains, but eastward from Palmyra the desert presents a boundless level surface as far as the eye can reach. The Arabs of the desert belong to the great Aenezé tribe, and are quite independent of the Turkish Padishah.

The climate of Syria is everywhere subject to the most sudden variations, and, except in the sheltered valleys, suffers the greatest extremes. In the mountains the winters last from November to March, and are sharp and rigorous, but the spring and autumn are agreeable, and the summer is not oppressive. In the plains, however, the summer sun is overpowering, but to compensate for this the winter is so temperate, that orange trees, dates, bananas, and other delicious fruits, grow in the open fields. Samaria being a hilly country, has a climate in accordance. The climate of Judæa is perhaps more favorable; yet so changeable is it that a few hours only are necessary to produce the change from spring to winter.

If natural advantages, seconded by art, were brought to bear, we might, in a space of 50 miles, bring together in this country the vegetable treasures of the most distant regions. Besides the usual grains cultivated, there are several objects of utility or luxury peculiar to different localities. Palestine abounds in sesamum and dhourra. Maize thrives in the light soil of Baalbec, and rice is cultivated along the marshy borders of the lakes. Sugar-canes have been introduced at Beyroût and Saidé; indigo grows without culture on the banks of the Jordan, and the hills of Latakia, and indeed all the mountains produce tobacco. Olives grow at Antakia and Ramli to the height of the oak. The white mulberry thrives abundantly on Lebanon and along the coast, and forms the wealth of the Druses, in consequence of the beautiful silk produced by its worms; and the vines produce wines equal to those of Bourdeaux. The clusters are remarkably large, and the grapes are often the size of plums. Jaffa boasts of her lemons, Gama of dates and pomegranates, Tripoli of oranges, and Beyroût of figs. Aleppo is unequalled for pistachio-nuts, and Damascus possesses every kind of European fruits, and, indeed, is the native soil of the "damson," or more properly the Damascene plum. Niebuhr was of opinion that the Arabian coffee-shrub might be cultivated in Palestine. The mountains of northern Syria are richly wooded, and the oak and yellow pine are abundant. Cotton is also raised in the same region. Samaria produces abundance of wheat, silk, and olives. Judæa lies further south. The ground rises from Jaffa to the mountains in four terraces. The shore is lined with mastic trees, palms, and prickly-pears; higher up are vines, olives, sycamores, and

lemon trees, with groves of evergreen oaks, cypresses, andrachnès, and turpentine trees. The ground is covered with rosemary, cisisas, and hyacinths.

Besides the buffalo and camel, every kind of European domestic animal is found in Syria and Palestine. The gazelle takes the place of the deer, and instead of wolves there are jackals, hyænas, and ounces. But the ravages of none of these are so destructive as that of the locust. They come from Arabia, and in their flight darken the sun, and spread desolation over the land. The approach of these insects is looked upon with despair, and famine surely follows their visitation. There is, however, a species of locust, which furnishes a tolerable article of food for man. The flocks of the Arabs still find in Palestine nutritious pasturage; and the wild bees hoard up in the holes of the rocks a fragrant honey, which is sometimes seen running down their faces.

The "Shat-el-Arab," formed by the union of the Euphrates and Tigris, is a broad and deep river, which flows in a single stream into the Persian Gulf. The two great rivers, the Tigris and Euphrates, however, will claim a more especial notice. The "Euphrates" is formed by the junction of two large streams in Armenia, the eastern branch being called the Murad, and the western branch the Frat or Kara-su. The united stream then makes a long circuit through the Taurus, and after clearing the mountains, forms a double cataract 22 milès above Samosat, and flows for 100 miles in a direction a little to the south of west; then proceeds another 100 miles nearly south, till it reaches the latitude of Haleb, when it turns to the south-east, and continues in that general direction to the head of the Persian Gulf. The whole length of its course has been variously estimated between 1,500 and 1,700 miles. The "Tigris," the companion and rival of the Euphrates, has its principal source in the mountains of the country of Zoph, in Armenia, about 5,000 feet above the level of the sea. Its first course is extremely rapid, and nearly approaches the Euphrates, being only prevented by a rising ground from joining its stream. Below Bagdad the Tigris has a moderate current, but in its course from Mosul to that city it passes over several ledges of rock; and above 32° north latitude, rushes through the hills of Hamrûn, where it has cut a channel of 150 yards wide. In the plains its course is extremely slow and sluggish. During the whole year, however, the Tigris has a sufficient body of water for moderate-sized boats up to Bagdad, and during a greater part of the year as high as Mosul and Diyarbekr. The great and only difficulty navigators have to contend with is the inhospitality of the natives, who plunder every stranger that falls into their power, and frequently murder them.

The united stream flows with a somewhat winding course, and it is described as being everywhere broader than the Nile, and its waters much deeper, while the banks are more thickly-covered with groves of date-trees, and more on a level with the surface of the water, so as to be more easily irrigated than any part of Egypt, except during inundation; but in other respects there is a striking contrast between these classic and noble rivers. Ships which can pass the bar, may be easily navigated up to Bussrah. The tide ascends the Euphrates 60 miles, and the Tigris 35 miles. Not far below Kornah, the Shat-el-Arab is joined by the "Haweeza," or Kerkût, a large river from Louristan, and below Bussrah it communicates by the Hufar Canal with the "Keroon," or Kûran. the three rivers together

forming seven mouths. These are the only rivers emptying themselves in a southern direction.

The "Jorukh," which rises in Armenia, flows northward to the Black Sea; as do also the Jekil-Irmak, the Kizil-Irmak, (ancient Halys,) and the Sackaria, (ancient Sangaria.) The Kizil-Irmak has a course of 570 miles, and is the largest river of Asia Minor. The "Kodos," or Sarabat, (Hermus,) rises in Murad-tagh, and falls into the Gulf of Smyrna, after a course of 190 miles. The "Menderi," or Meinder, (Mœander,) has a western course of 180 miles into the Archipelago, south of Samos. It is celebrated for its windings, from which all similar windings have been called "meanders." The "Sihoon" rises near Bostan, and flows south-west past Adana into the Mediterranean; and the "Jihoon" has nearly a parallel course, a little to the eastward, and falls into the Gulf of Scanderoon.

The "Aazi," or El-asi, the ancient Orontes, rises on the east side of Anti-Libanus, north of Damascus, flows north and north-west, through a long valley, to Antakia, where it turns south and south-west, and falls into the Mediterranean Sea after a course of 225 miles. It is a rapid and troubled river, flowing near the foot of the Ansarian Mountains, where it forms numerous marshes. To the north-east of Antakia, the streams that descend from the valley of Taurus form a large lake, "Aggi," or Owjadenghis, (White Sea,) which empties itself in one stream, called the Karasu, into the Orontes. The "Leitani," (Leontes,) rises at the northern end of the valley of El-Bekaa, and flows south-by-west into the Mediterranean, a little to the north of Tyre. The "Jordan," or Sherya, rises in a small lake, called anciently Phiala on Mount Hermon, flows south into Lake Hoolya, (the waters of Merom,) and passes onward through the Lake Tabariah, (Sea of Galilee,) and then flows in a winding course through a spacious valley, called El Ghor, and falls into the Dead Sea. In the highest part of its course the Jordan, after it leaves Lake Tabariah, flows between banks which are often picturesque, and in spring it fills its deep channel, moving along with great rapidity. The "Zerka," (Jabbok,) flows from Jebel-Harouan westward into the Jordan, nearly midway between the two lakes. The Kison flows through the plain of Esdraelon into the south side of the Bay of Acre. The Koje, Kasab, Arsouf, Petras, Roubin, Sorek, Besor, or the River of Gaza, all flow into the Mediterranean Sea.

The coasts have several large gulfs and bays, which need only be named in this connection. In the Black Sea are the Gulfs of Samsoun, and Sinub or Sinope; in the Sea of Marmora the Gulfs of Ismid and Moudania; in the Archipelago the Gulfs of Besiche or Besika, (near the entrance of the Dardanelles,) Adramyti, Sandarli, Smyrna, Vourla, Scala-Nova, Asyn-Kalsi, Cos and Symi; and in the Mediterranean, the Gulfs of Marmorici, Macri, Satalia or Adalia, Iskenderoon, or Scanderoon, and the Bay of Acre.

The capes and headlands are those having the names of Batoum, Foudji, Kourehlih, Zephira, Aio-Vasisli, Poslepei, Vona, Jasoun, Thermeh, Tcherchenbeh, Indjeh, Kerempe, (ancient Carambis,) Baba, Kirpeh, and Kara-Bournou, all on the north coast of Asia Minor; Cape Janissary, at the entrance of the Dardanelles; Baba-Burun, Kara-Burun and Krio on the west coast; Khelidonia, Anamour, Karadash, on the south coast of the peninsula; and Khynzir, Bosyt, Ras-el-Shakaa, and Mount Carmel on the coast of Syria.

The great "Lake of Van," in Armenia, is situated between 38° and 39° N. latitude, and 42° and 44° E. longitude, extending nearly 80 miles

from S. W. to N. E. The eastern half has only a breadth of from 5 to 9 or 10 miles; in the middle it expands to a width of 37 miles, but contracts again at its west end to 15 or 16. It occupies the bottom of a volcanic amphitheatre, surrounded with lofty mountains; its waters are bitter, and a species of herring or sardine is taken in abundance at some seasons, and is salted and deported to all parts of Asia Minor. The beauty of this lake has been celebrated by almost every Armenian writer, both in prose and verse. It contains two considerable islands, on which are Armenian convents, and a few vessels ply upon the lake. A singular substance is found floating on the surface which the people use for washing clothes. This is an alkaline salt, composed chiefly of carbonate of soda and chloride of sodium or sea-salt. The lake is 5,467 feet above the level of the sea. Near the centre of Asia Minor is the great "Tuzla" or salt lake of Koch-Hisar. It is very narrow, while its length extends through nearly 50 miles. The salt made here is a government monopoly. Its surface is 2,500 feet above the level of the sea.

The "Dead Sea," called by the Arabs "Bahr-Lout," (Lot's Sea,) the *Lacus Asphaltites* or *Mare Mortuum* of the Latins, is situated in the southern part of Palestine, between 31° and 32° N. latitude, and 35° and 36° E. longitude. Its dimensions have not been exactly ascertained, but it probably extends 50 miles in length and from 7 to 20 in breadth. It has lately been visited and explored by a naval commission from the United States, but as yet their observations have not been published. It is very deep, and in some places exceeds 300 fathoms, while its surface is very much below the level of the Mediterranean. Its waters are very salt and the taste most nauseous, and so pungent that the eyes smart severely after plunging into it. The south-western side of the lake is skirted by a long, low ridge, about 150 feet high, the whole mass of which consists of solid rock salt, covered with a soft limestone, marl and other substances, through which the salt breaks out, and appears on the sides in precipices 40 or 50 feet high and several hundred feet long. The Arabs carry salt from the Dead Sea to all parts of Palestine for use. The supply of water is derived from the river Jordan, but in the rainy season a large supply is also derived from the south. Nothing can be more dreary than the scenery around this lake; the soil is without vegetation, and furnishes food for neither bird nor beast. The water is extremely buoyant, and the air above it has a feeling of oppressive weight. Asphaltum is found floating on its surface, and it is said that no fish can exist in its waters. The traditions respecting the lost cities of the plain are omitted, for the simple reason that little is known concerning them; and few are so credulous as to believe the superstitious tales and wicked lies of the prating monks, and their coadjutors the pilgrim devotees. The "Lake of Tabariah," or Sea of Galilee, is about 70 miles north of the Dead Sea, and is also much below the Mediterranean. It is about 16 miles long and 9 wide, and is noted by all travellers for its grandeur and picturesque beauty. The Jordan flows through the middle of it in a strong and perceptible current, and it is often subject to whirlwinds, squalls, and sudden gusts from the hollow of the mountains. The "Aggi" or Owja-denghis, (White Sea,) is about 10 miles long and 4 or 5 broad, and affords a navigable passage along its west side. Though receiving several streams from the Taurus, it empties itself by only one, the Kara-su, which flows to the Orontes. Besides the above there are in Syria the "Bahr-el-Margi," which receives the waters from the plain of Damascus; the "Lake of Homs," and the "Sibkah"—all in Syria. In Asia Minor there are a number of others, as the lakes of Is-nik, Abulliont, Maniyas, Egerdir, Ochardak,

(a salt lake,) and Gheuljik, 4,453 feet above the level, and many others of smaller size both salt and fresh.

This country having been so often conquered and so repeatedly changed its masters, must of necessity be peopled by a heterogeneous mass of inhabitants; and its being as it were the highway between Europe and Asia, must moreover have conduced greatly to the same result. The dominant people here, however, as in European Turkey, are the Ottomans, who are spread over the whole country, but are most numerous in Asia Minor, which they consider as their original country. Besides the Ottomans there are a great number of other Turks; those of Armenia and along the eastern frontier take that name, which completely distinguishes them from their brethren of the west, who despise it. Next to these are the Arabs, the Kurds, &c., and in Syria is also found an intensely mixed population. The original Syrians form but a very small portion of the whole. Many Arabs are also settled in Syria. In the north are also herds of Turcomans and Kurds, and the mountains between Aleppo and Damascus are occupied in great part by the single tribes, Ansarians, Druses, Maronites and Motoualis. The "Ansarians," under several names, occupy the mountains which extend from Antakia to the river Kebir, and are generally considered as a Mahomedan sect, said to have been founded in the seventh century by one Nassar. The chief seat and residence of their Emir is Masiat, or Maszyad, a castle 40 miles north-east of Tripoli. The "Druses," about 150,000 in number, dwell among the hills and valleys of Lebanon. Their origin is uncertain, but it is probable they are the descendants of the ancient Ituræi, a brave people, who possessed the same country in the time of the Romans. They are under the government of an Emir, who resides at Deir-el-Kamam, 12 miles east of Saide. Their religion is involved in mystery, but they believe in one God, whom they say appeared for the last time incarnate in the person of Hakem, Khalif of Egypt, about A. D. 1030. This prophet and his priesthood fell by persecution, but their doctrines survived, and their proselytes took refuge in Lebanon. The Druses have several times united with the other tribes to oppose the invader, and have successively struggled against the Crusaders, the Sultans of Aleppo, the Mamelukes and the Ottomans. They are fierce, restless and enterprising, and their bravery even approaches to rashness. They seem, however, to be very indifferent at the present day in matters of religion; in the mountains their Emir is a Christian, and when he visits the towns of the coast he is one of the faithful. The females wear tantooras or horns on the head, supporting a sort of veil, which gives them a very singular appearance. The Fellahs of the Ledja are also Druses; and to the east of Sanamein is a ridge of hills called "Jebel-ul-Droos," the inhabitants of which are governed by a prince of their own, independent of the Emir beshir. The "Maronites" occupy the hilly country between Beyrouût and Tripoli, and live in villages and hamlets round the convent of Kannobin, the seat of their patriarch. They are divided into tribes, and live peaceably and frugally in the bosoms of their families; and the Christian traveller meets with a kindly and hospitable welcome. Here the Christian enjoys full toleration; and 290 monasteries and a great number of hermitages are established on the sides of Lebanon. The Maronites derive their origin from a saint called Maron, whose proselytes, having been stigmatized as heretics, sought refuge in these mountains. After long braving the Saracen and Turkish power, they were reduced at last by Sultan Murad III., in 1558, and compelled to pay an annual tribute. In every other respect they remain

uncontrolled. They have been received into the Roman Church, but they have brought with them many of their peculiar opinions, and their priests are allowed to be married. Their devotion, superstitious as it is, is fervent and steady, and throws an agreeable interest over their little territory, surrounded on all sides by the dark cloud of Islam. They number about 150,000. The Maronites recognize no distinction of rank, and each village seems to be a little republic within itself, amenable to no second or higher authority. In personal quarrels, however, they exercise the barbaric right of vengeance, their religion having failed to impress upon them the cardinal virtues of forgiveness and mercy. They are all armed, and when they are mustered, their strength appears to be about 35,000 warriors. Their monks, priests, and even bishops, have to maintain themselves in some secular calling, and are generally very poor; but for this poverty the clergy are compensated by the great respect paid to them by the people, who kiss their hands whenever they meet them. The "Motoualis" are Shiah or Orthodox Mussulmans, who worship the Khalif Ali and his descendants, while they curse Abubekr, Omar and Othman. They have several times rendered themselves formidable to the Turks. They are supposed to be descendants of the ancient Syrians; but their specific name, which signified *sectaries of Ali*, does not occur before the 18th century. The Motoualis are now very much reduced, and are chiefly to be found in Eastern Lebanon and among the Maronites. Their Emir resides at Baalbec, but the lower part of the valley is occupied by Turks.

The Arabic language predominates over the whole of Syria; and the old Syrian tongue is spoken chiefly, and perhaps only, in a few districts in the neighborhood of Damascus and Lebanon. The Arab and Turkish part of the population are invariably followers of the Prophet, and are perhaps the most superstitious among mankind. Of the Christian sects the Greek Church has the greatest number of adherents; the Jacobites have also many adherents; and there are besides some European Christians, Armenians, Nestorians, and Jews, who follow their peculiar doctrines and forms. In fact the creeds are as heterogeneous as the people, and perhaps no country presents such a diversity of either.

As far as relates to the government, no difference is made between the Asiatic and European territory. The Padishah is monarch and high-priest over both, and the provinces and minor districts are immediately ruled by the same powers.—(*See Turkey in Europe.*)

Throughout the vast region of Ottoman Asia agriculture is in a most primitive state, with the exception only of a few small districts and in the neighborhood of the large towns; and here, in as fine a climate and as fruitful a soil as any part of the world ever possessed, the lands do not yield to one-fourth of their capacity. The implements are wretched, and quite patriarchal, and scarce one of the improvements of modern science has been imported into the country. In the cultivation of the vine, olive and fig, perhaps, they excel, but in their cereal agriculture the people are not one degree removed from the first rudiments propounded by their ancestors four thousand years ago.

Manufacturing industry is a little better understood, and flourishes particularly in the larger towns, in several important branches. It may even be said, that in the particular branch of dying the Turks surpass, or at least equal the most perfect European specimens of the same kind. But generally speaking, there seems to be a complete stagnation of industry,

energy, and enterprise. The principal arts and manufactures of Asiatic Turkey are :—the silk stuffs of Aleppo, Damascus, Mardin, Bagdad, and Brusa ; the cotton stuffs of Mosul, Damascus, Aleppo, Guzel-hizer, Diyar-bekr, Smyrna, and Manissa ; the cloth of Brusa, Tokat, Amasia, Trebisond, Rizah, Mardin, Bagdad, and Diyarbekr ; the ordinary cloth of Khanak-kalesi, Ghuzel-hizar, and Hillah ; the camlets and shawls of Angora ; the carpets of Brusa, Kara-hizar, Pergamo, Aleppo, and Damascus ; the leather of Konieh, Kaisariyah, Kuskun, Diyarbekr, and Orfa ; the saddles of Amtah ; the bridles of Hillah ; the tobacco of Latakia ; the opium of Kara-hizar ; the stone-ware of Khanak-kalesi and Hillah ; the soaps of Bagdad, Damascus, and Aleppo ; the cutlery of Damascus ; the coppér utensils of Tokat and Erzeroum ; and the glass of Mardin and Hebron.

The peninsular position of Ottoman Asia and its geographical situation between Asia and Europe, indicate it as the centre of an extended commerce. Few countries of the world are better adapted for commercial purposes. Accordingly, from the highest antiquity, and during all the middle ages, this country was the seat of the greatest commerce in the world. This, however, was previous to the modern discoveries, and before the sciences had adapted the ways and means of commerce to penetrate to far off countries by other means than overland. This may account for the decline of the prosperity of Asia Minor and Syria in part, but it no less owes its present debasement to the neglect and bad government of the present dominant race. The roads are wretched, no safety invites the traveller, and the arbitrary assessments of despotism are too stringent to give encouragement to the merchant. These drawbacks have done their work ; and as a consequence the present commerce of the country is but a shadow of what it was in former times. The central position, nevertheless, of these fine provinces, between Europe, Asia, and Africa, the rich productions of their soil, the numerous products of the industry of some of their great towns, and the caravans of Damascus and Bagdad, which convey to Mecca the pilgrims of Europe and Eastern Asia, contribute still to give great activity to their commercial relations. The internal commerce, which is the most considerable, is carried on by caravans as in other parts of Asia. All the great manufacturing towns, before mentioned, are resorted to by thousands annually, and their wares are thus distributed over the country. The maritime commerce is carried on almost entirely by Europeans, and perhaps some little by the Americans. The English, French, Dutch, Russians, and Austrians enjoy the greatest share of this trade, and derive advantages in using their own ships. Smyrna, Latakia, Tripoli, Acre, and Beyroût, are the principal ports in the Levant ; and Trebisond on the Black Sea. The Armenians, and next to them the Greeks and Jews, are of the native population most given to commerce. The principal articles of export are : silk, cotton, wool, leather, tobacco, copper, camels' hair, goats' hair, opium, saffron, gall-nuts, turpentine, storax, raisins, figs, and other dried fruit, the wine of Cyprus, skins, Turkey leather, and other articles of native manufacture, and several manufactured articles which are imported from India, Persia, and Arabia. The principal articles of import are :—silk-stuffs, cloths, needles, watches, and hardware, mirrors and other glass-ware from Bohemia and Venice, paper, tin, Nuremburg wares, porcelain, &c. Arabia, Persia, and India furnish a great part of the precious products of their soil, and the last country sends the produce of its numerous manufactures.

As in Europe, so in Asia, Turkey is divided into eyalets, sandjaks, and

livas; some of the latter, however, being independent of the pasha or governor of the eyalet within which they are geographically situated. These divisions are very unequal in extent and population. Many wandering and mountain tribes, and indeed large tracts of country, are only tributary; some are merely vassals, and others quite independent. The eyalets are twenty in number.

EYALETs.		Chief Towns.	Pop.
I. ASIA MINOR, OR ANADOLI:			
Anadoli.....	} Area in sq. miles.. 250,000 Population..... 4,350,000 Population to sq. mile..17.4	Kutahya...	50,000
Adana.....		Adana ....	30,000
Caramania.....		Konieh....	30,000
Marash.....		Marash....	10,000
Sivas.....		Sivas.....	26,000
Trebizond.....		Trebizond .	25,000
II. ARMENIA, with part of KURDISTAN:			
Erzeroum.....	} Area in sq. miles.. 36,000 Population ..... 2,300,000 Population to sq. mile..63.8	Erzeroum..	35,000
Kars.....		Kars .....	14,000
Van.....		Van.....	12,000
Shehrzur, or Kurdistan		Kerkuk....	13,000
III. MESOPOTAMIA OR ALJEZIRA, with ARABIAN IRAK:			
Bagdad.....	} Area in sq. miles.. 160,000 Population ..... 5,400,000 Population to sq. mile...33.7	Bagdad....	60,000
Diyarbekr.....		Diyarbekr..	50,000
Rakka.....		Rakka ....	5,000
Mosul.....		Mosul .....	45,000
IV. SYRIA, OR EL-SHAM:			
Aleppo.....	} Area in sq. miles.. 48,000 Population ..... 1,500,000 Population to sq. mile..31.3	Aleppo ....	250,000
Damascus.....		Damascus..	100,000
Acre.....		Acre.....	12,000
Tripoli.....		Tripoli.....	15,000
Total area in square miles.....		494,000	
" Population .....		13,550,000	
Population to square mile.....		27.3	

SMYRNA ("Ismir" of the Turks,) latitude  $38^{\circ} 29' N.$ , longitude  $27^{\circ} 11' E.$ , is situated at the bottom or eastern extremity of the gulf of the same name, and is built in the form of an amphitheatre, on the slope of a hill, the top of which is crowned with a ruinous castle. Without being beautiful, Smyrna presents an agreeable appearance, and contains some well-built houses, which belong chiefly to the Franks, and form a pretty quarter of the town. The streets are narrow and dirty, with the exception of those which are covered. To its position Smyrna owes the rank which it holds among the most important trading places in the world. The extent and safety of its road for shipping, and the facility of its communications with the interior, have made it the general emporium of the Levant. The trade in dry fruit is immense. Smyrna has a population of about 130,000, of whom 10,000 are Jews of Spanish origin. The Frank quarter is inhabited principally by the English, French, Dutch, and Italian merchants, with their families and servants, whose persons and property are exempt from Turkish rule; and in civil, commercial, or criminal matters, they recognise no other judges than their own consuls. The summer heat is very great; the thermometer in July, in a cool room with the shutters closed, varies from  $78^{\circ}$  to  $83^{\circ}$ , and in the shade out of doors, from  $84^{\circ}$  to  $94^{\circ}$ ; but the heat is generally tempered by a fine westerly breeze called the "inbat," which continues from mid-day till sunset. Occasionally, however, hot winds blow



from the south and burn up the country. In the immediate neighborhood are the pretty village of Bournabat, where most of the Franks have their country houses, and the villages of Bouja and Sedi-Keui, remarkable for their fine plains and numerous population.

AYASALOUK, (Moon-town,) 40 miles S. by E. of Smyrna, a miserable Turkish village, represents the ancient Ephesus, the remains of which are at a little distance, and consist of shapeless ruins and stone walls. The harbor is now only a pestilential marsh. PALATIA, near the mouth of the Meander, a wretched assemblage of huts, appears to represent Miletus, one of the most flourishing commercial cities of antiquity. The ruins of its vast theatre are still to be seen. It is situated upon a brackish lake, connected with the Meander by a channel two miles long. SART (Sardes,) 50 miles E., is a miserable village inhabited by a few Turks, on the site of the splendid capital of the Lydian kings. The principal ruins consist of those of the great church, the temple of Cybele, and the tomb of Alyattes, the father of Cræsus, which consists of a conical hill of earth 200 feet high and 4,000 round the base. Similar monuments of smaller size are found at a little distance. ALLAH-SHEHR or Ala-Shehr, (ancient Philadelphia,) 85 miles E. of Smyrna, is said to contain more than a dozen of Christian churches, and the bulk of its population is Christian. PERGAMO or Bergma, 48 miles N., is a large and still flourishing town in the valley of the Caicus (Grimakli,) although only the shadow of the ancient residence of the kings of Pergamus. Its magnificent temple of Æsculapius, its celebrated library, inferior only to that of Alexandria, and the invention of parchment (*charta pergamena*,) give a distinguished place in history to this ancient city.

BRUSA, or PRUSA, is situated in a fine plain 20 miles in length, behind which, to the south, rise the snowy tops of Olympus. The ordinary houses are of wood, the streets very narrow but clean and well-paved, and altogether it is a very fine city. It is overlooked by an old castle situated on a rocky and picturesque eminence, and is surrounded by extensive suburbs. The most remarkable buildings are the Ouloujami, or principal mosque, a large building, which dates from the Ottoman conquest of the city; the mosques of the Sultan Orkhan, with his tomb, and a well-frequented college; and those of the Sultans Ottoman, Murad, and Bayazid. The city contains also a number of fine khans, built with stone, magnificent baths, and beautiful fountains. Formerly the capital of the kings of Bithynia, it was afterwards the capital of the Ottoman empire till the taking of Adrianople. Population, 100,000. The adjoining plain is covered for miles with mulberry trees, which supply abundant food for the silk-worms that furnish the staple produce of the place. The mountains abound in the finest pasturage, timber, underwood for fuel, and springs of the purest water, which is profusely supplied to every part of the city. From the foot of Olympus there issue mineral waters, with a strong sulphureous odor, and of the temperature of 167° to 190° Fahrenheit, which are conducted into baths for the use of the citizens.

MOUDANIA, 17 miles N. W. of Brusa, a town on the gulf to which it gives its name, serves as the port of Brusa. IS-NIK or Sneek, a wretched pile of huts, which stand upon the site of Nicæa, the ancient metropolis of Bithynia, is celebrated for the first general council held there by the Christians in A. D. 325. Its thick walls, its towers and gates, are still in good preservation. IS-NIKMID or Is-mid, the ancient Nicomedia, an early residence of the kings of Bithynia, was made the capital of the Roman empire by Diocletian. No vestiges of its former magnificence remain. POUNGAR-BASHI

or Bournar-bashi, south-east from the Dardanelles, is a village supposed to occupy, or at least to be near to, the site of the ancient Troja or Ilium. There are no remains of the city, but on a neighboring rock believed to be Pergamus (the citadel,) are the ruins of buildings in irregular polygons, a cistern cut in the rock, and three heroic tombs or barrows. Some marble pillars and other remains at Chiblack point out the site of New Ilium, built by Alexander the Great, ruined by Sylla, and rebuilt by Julius Cæsar. **SHEMAL**, another village with antiquities, marks the site of Alexandria-Troas, a city entirely ruined and deserted, but whose ruins still attest its ancient magnificence.

**KUTAHYA**, (Cotyæium,) 80 miles S. E. of Brusa, a large town, built in a picturesque situation, on the slope of Mount Pursak, and watered by the river Pursak, is considered the capital of Anadoli. Among its buildings the only one remarkable is an old mosque of singular architecture. Population, 50,000. In the immediate neighborhood is Tunshali, a place with famous warm baths.

**KONIEH**, (Iconium,) 300 miles E. by S. of Smyrna, is a large town, in a rich and well-watered plain. Among its numerous mosques is remarked that of Selim, built on the model of Ayia Sophia. Here is also the convent of the Mewlevis, founded by Jelaeddin Roumi in the 13th century, and the chief of all the establishments of the same kind in the empire. Konieh still possesses considerable trade and manufactures, and numerous medreses or colleges. The great flat plain to the east is dry in summer, but is flooded and impassable in winter. Population about 30,000.

**TOKAT**, on a branch of the Kizil-Irmak, is a large town, with narrow but well-paved streets. It stands at the mouth of a long, steep, narrow, rocky defile, which widens a little on approaching the city, on the bank of a small stream, but so surrounded on three sides by lofty mountains, that the heat concentrated in the narrow valley sometimes becomes intolerable. The valley for about three miles above the town is filled with gardens and vineyards, and a number of rills of water run through it. The town is not esteemed healthy, autumnal fevers being very prevalent. Population about 30,000. As a commercial mart the importance of Tokat has passed away. **KAISARIYAH**, 160 miles E. N. E. from Konieh, the ancient Mazaca, capital of Cappadocia, afterwards called Cæsarea, in honor of the Emperor Tiberius, is situate at the foot of the mighty and constantly snow-capt Mount Arjish, 4,200 feet above the level of the sea. It is surrounded by a wall quite dilapidated. It contains 8,000 houses, 5,000 Turkish, 2,500 Armenian, and 500 Greek. The villages in the neighborhood are large and populous, and the Christian inhabitants here display their riches and luxury in their country houses more than in any other part of Turkey. Kaisariyah is the principal commercial mart in the central part of Asia Minor; the inhabitants are remarkable for their activity and enterprise, and the natives are found assiduously following their pursuits in the remotest corners of the empire. The products of a warm climate, as melons, figs, pomegranates, and grapes, are yielded; but the plain is neither fertile nor well cultivated, except merely around the town. The bottom of the mountain is covered with gardens, which produce fruits, and the yellow berry used in dyeing, for which Kaisariyah is so celebrated. The ruins of a more ancient town, destroyed by an earthquake, are close by.

**SIVAS**, 50 miles S. by E. of Tokat, is situated in a plain, from 4 to 6 miles in breadth by 16 or 20 in length, watered by the Kizil-Irmak, and noted for grain of superior quality. The climate is severe, though remarkably healthy.

The town covers a large area, within which are many ruins. It contains about 5,000 Turkish, and 1,200 families; and its position is very favorable for an important commercial city. The access from the Black Sea is easy, and has been facilitated by a military road. The city is situated in the centre of a district abounding in the first necessities of life, and of a country which would require extensive supplies. The route of Sivas is the best to reach Malatiah, Kharpout, and Diyarbekr. The bazaars are extensive, and the khans numerous, and both are well supplied with goods.

TREBIZOND, (Trapesus,) on the southern coast of the Black Sea, has been a place of importance since its foundation by the Greeks in ages beyond the reach of authentic records. The town is built on the slope of a hill facing the sea, part of it being surrounded by a castellated and lofty wall, and is in the shape of a parallelogram (*τραπεζοῦς*), whence it derives its name. On each side of the walled portion of the city is a deep ravine, filled with trees and gardens, and both ravines are crossed by long bridges. Overlooking the city is a citadel, which is rather dilapidated and neglected, and is commanded by neighboring heights. There is no harbor for ships; but a small open bay at the east end of the town is used as an anchorage during the summer. After the autumnal equinox the Turkish and European vessels resort to Platana, an open roadstead 7 miles W. of Trebizond; but British vessels anchor at all seasons at Trebizond, and the anchorage there, even in winter, appears to be quite as secure as that of Platana. The city contains between 25,000 and 35,000 inhabitants, of whom between 3,500 and 4,000 are Greeks, from 1,500 to 2,000 Armenians, and the remainder Mahometans. Its present importance depends almost solely on its being the most convenient port of debarkation for merchandise destined for Armenia and Persia.

ANGORA or Enguri, (anc. Ancyra,) 2,750 feet above the level of the sea, is a large town with 50,000 inhabitants, celebrated for its silky-haired goats, cats, rabbits, and dogs; and for the camlets made from the goat-wool. The quantity of wool annually exported amounts, it is said, to 1,250,000 lbs.; but of this less than a half is of the more valuable fleece.—(*Answorth, Jour. R. Geog. Soc.*, IX. 275.) Among other antiquities, Angora contains the remains of the Augustæum, or temple of Augustus Cæsar, with an account of his life inscribed on the portal. In A. D. 1402, a great battle was fought near Angora, between Bayazid-Ilderim, the Ottoman Sultan, and Tamerlane, or Timûr the Tartar.

ERZEROUM, the chief town of Armenia, is situated in an extensive and fertile plain, 30 or 40 miles in length, and from 15 to 20 broad, and watered by the Kara-su, or Western Euphrates. On every side are found rich grain countries, in which good horses, fine mules, cattle, and sheep, are reared in great numbers. Erzeroûm commands the road to Persia, protects the approach from the east to Constantinople, and is now the first important place in Turkey, whether it is entered from Persia or Georgia. The population, in 1827, was estimated at 130,000; it was subsequently, in consequence of the Russian invasion, reduced to 15,000; but it fluctuates considerably, on account of the vast number of strangers who are continually arriving and departing with caravans. In 1837 the settled inhabitants were estimated at 35,000. The town is partly surrounded by an old castellated wall, and contains a citadel; but a large portion is unwallèd, where are the principal khans and bazaars. There are 36 khans; the custom-house is the largest in the empire, and the city is the entrepôt of a great trade. The climate is severe, on account of the elevation of the town above the sea, which is ascertained to be 6,114 feet.

VAN, situated near the east side of the great lake to which it gives its name, in a large plain, studded with villages and gardens, is noted as one of the bulwarks of the Ottoman empire in its contest with Persia, and is a strong and commercial city, with about 12,000 inhabitants. It appears to have been in ancient times a place of great importance; it has been always called by the Armenians *Shamiramakert* (Semiramis' town,) and the people of the neighborhood still venerate the memory of the Assyrian kings, whose names they have preserved, in connection with several localities. The citadel is built on an isolated hill, believed by some travellers to be artificial, in the interior of which there are large caverns and vaulted rooms, where remains of statues and other ancient objects are still sometimes found. But the most interesting relics are the inscriptions, in arrow-headed characters, which cover the entrance and the sides of the hill. Ruins and relics of the same kind are found not only in the vicinity of the city, but in all the surrounding country. The banks of the lake, particularly the eastern and southern sides, are very mountainous, and are partially covered with wood; the soil is fertile, and the pasturage excellent. Van is the seat of a Pasha, who is dependent on the Pasha of Erzeroum.

HALEB or ALEPPO, (*Khelbon* of Ezekiel, *Chalybon*, and *Berea* of the Greeks,) situated on the banks of the Koikh. was, of all the Ottoman cities, inferior only to Constantinople and Cairo in extent, population, and wealth; while, in respect of salubrity, the elegance and solidity of its buildings, and the neatness of its streets, it was superior to both of these. It is encompassed by walls three miles in circuit; but the suburbs were so extensive that the total circumference was estimated at seven miles, and the population at 250,000. The city stands low, with nothing in the surrounding country that can add beauty or importance to its position. It is protected by a strong castle on the top of an immense mound, of a circular form, and surrounded by a wide ditch. By two successive earthquakes in 1822, more than half the city was destroyed, and its finest buildings ruined or considerably injured; and the destruction was almost completed by another earthquake in 1830. It is very slowly recovering from these disasters; but is still a large and important city, with a population of nearly 60,000 souls. Formerly its commerce placed it in the first rank among the cities of Asia, and it was the grand emporium of Syria, Arabia, Mesopotamia, and Armenia. It is still the emporium of Northern Syria, and is connected in extensive commercial transactions with Diyarbekr and the upper parts of Anatolia, and with Mardin, Mosul, and Bagdad. The principal manufacture of the city is that of stuffs, which are famous throughout the east. They consist of silk-stuffs, with gold and silver thread; silk and cotton, flowered and striped; and striped cotton only, called nankeens. There are about 4,000 looms employed, and about 4,800 persons, men and children, producing a yearly value of about \$1,250,000. The chief attractions of Aleppo are its gardens, which are watered by the Koikh, and produce abundance of fruit and vegetables, among which the pistachio-nuts are much celebrated. The people are chiefly dependent for water on an aqueduct, attributed to St. Helena, which still brings water from a distance of several miles. Aleppo is about 60 miles from the sea on one side, and is equally distant from the Euphrates on the other.

SCANDEROON, Iskenderûn, or Alexandretta, sixty miles W. N. W. of Haleb, is a small town situated in the midst of pestilential marshes, on the southern shore of a fine gulf, which penetrates 26 miles inland from Ras Khanzir, gradually diminishing in breadth from ten miles to seven. The

bay is bordered on the south and east sides by the lofty mountain ridges of Amanus, which, in some places rises gradually from the sea, and in others are two or three miles inland, leaving between them and the shore small plains composed of a rich light soil. The harbor of Scanderoon consists of a fine bay running in south-east from the gulf, and protected from all winds; it is capable of containing in perfect security from 30 to 35 sail of ships. **LATAKIA**, (ancient *Laodiceæ*,) 90 miles S. W. by W. of Haleb, near Cape Ziaret, is a small town with a well sheltered harbor, which has also now become one of the ports of Aleppo. **ANTAKIA**, (ancient *Antiochia*, or *Antioch the Great*,) 60 miles west of Aleppo, on the banks of the Orontes, once the proud capital of Syria, with 700,000 inhabitants, is now a ruinous town, with houses built of mud and straw, narrow and dirty streets, and a population of 20,000. Its ancient walls, about five miles in circuit, are still mostly standing, but are in a very decayed and mouldering condition. The river, which is from 100 to 150 feet wide, and is crossed by a substantial bridge, was formerly navigable to the sea, and might easily be rendered so again, for larger vessels than the boats which are used upon it. The fall of stream scarcely exceeds  $5\frac{1}{2}$  feet a mile. **PALMYRA**, the *Tadmor* of Scripture, is a mass of splendid ruins in an oasis in the desert, the remains of a great commercial city which attained the height of its prosperity in the third century, when its queen, Zenobia, defied the arms of Rome. The present inhabitants are a few Arabs, who occupy about thirty mud huts among the ruins, and obtain a subsistence by cultivating a few detached spots, and feeding some flocks of goats and sheep. Two small streams impregnated with sulphur run among the ruins, and are lost in the sands. In the seventh century Palmyra was still so fortified as to stand a siege from Khalif Merwan, but after that period it seems to have fallen gradually to decay.

**TRIPOLI**, called by the Turks *Tarabolus*, is built on the declivity of a hill, about a league, or half an hour's journey, from the sea shore, near the mouth of the river Kadisha. It is one of the neatest towns in Syria, the houses being all well built, of stone, and neatly fitted up within; it is surrounded by luxuriant gardens, which produce abundance of oranges and lemons. The population amounts to about 15,000; among whom are several European merchants. The principal article of export is the soap produced on the neighboring mountains, of which it formerly exported 800 quintals every year, but its commerce has been lately on the decline. The next article of export is sponges, which are procured on the sea shore, the best being found at some depth in the sea; soap is exported to Tarsous for Anatolia and the Greek islands, as well as the alkali for making it, which is procured in the eastern deserts; the khan of the soapmakers is a large well-built edifice. The marina or port forms a little town by itself.

**ACRE**, or **AKKA**, or **ST. JOHN D'ACRE**, (*Ptolemais*,) was a place of great importance in the time of the Crusades, and sustained many sieges alternately from the Saracens and Christians. It is memorable in modern history for the gallantry with which it was defended in 1799 against Bonaparte, who, after spending 61 days before it, was obliged to retreat. It was afterwards strongly fortified by Jezzar Pasha, which enabled it to endure a siege of seven months from the Egyptian army in the winter of 1831-2. Its fortifications were subsequently repaired and improved; but on the 3d November, 1840, the town was reduced to a heap of ruins by a three hours' bombardment from the British fleet, acting as the allies of the Sultan, and the fortress evacuated by the Egyptians. It stands at the north-east side of

a fine bay, near the mouth of the river *Naamany*, (*Belus*.) The harbor of Acre is the principal mart for the cotton of Syria, and the principal commercial nations of Europe have consuls here.

Mount Carmel, eight or nine miles S. W., forming the south-west side of the Bay of Acre, terminates in a rocky promontory about 2,000 feet high, and contains a number of grottoes once occupied by the cells and chapels of the austere order of monks called Carmelites. A very few still remain, who lead a recluse life, and are venerated even by the Mahomedans, who supply their wants. The mountain bears the traces of aqueducts, and of plantations of vines and olives, and on the top is a monastery, built originally by the Empress Helena, and recently restored in a very substantial and elegant style, chiefly at the expense of the late king of France, Charles X. NAZRA, (*Nazareth*), twenty miles south-east of Acre, a mean and wretched village or town of 3,000 inhabitants, contains an extensive building, the Latin convent; and the church of the Annunciation is the finest in Palestine, after that of Bethlehem, and the church of the Holy Sepulchre at Jerusalem. Another church contains several grottoes, now converted into chapels, where popular belief places the kitchen, the bed-chamber, and other parts of the house of the Virgin Mary; and not far from this, tradition shows the place where the angel Gabriel appeared to Mary, Joseph's workshop, and the school to which our Lord went to be taught with other boys! Near Nazareth is CANA, a pretty little town of about 300 inhabitants, and *Mount Tabor*, the traditional scene of the Transfiguration, where within a grotto have been built three altars, in memory of the three tabernacles which Peter proposed to build. Once a year, on the day of the Transfiguration, the Latin fathers celebrate mass here. Tabor is a conical hill, nearly detached from those around it; its form is singularly regular; the summit is flat, and commands a most magnificent view. In the same neighbourhood are the reputed scenes of several other miracles, to which the monks go in procession every year to chant the gospel on the day of their commemoration. SUR or TYRE, 28 miles N. by E. of Acre, the queen of the sea at the dawn of profane history, the cradle of commerce, and the chief city of Phœnicia, contained in the latter half of the 17th century only about a dozen of wretched huts, which sheltered a few fishermen. It afterwards began to recover, and now forms a considerable town, is well built, and contains several mosques, churches, and bazaars. The original Tyre stood on the mainland, but that having been taken and destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, King of Babylon, the Tyrians built a new city on a small island off the coast, where they were again besieged by Alexander the Great, who joined the island to the continent by an immense mound, which now forms an isthmus. SAÏDE, (*Sidon*), the mother city of Tyre, 23 miles farther north, is still a considerable town, though somewhat decayed.

BEYROUT or Beirout, 65 miles N. N. E. from Acre, one of the ancient cities of Phœnicia (*Berytus*), is situated in a lovely plain, with fine scenery all around. It is the port of Damascus and central Syria, and has more commercial activity than any other Syrian port. Many merchants reside in Beyrout. The town and the neighborhood have been of late greatly improved. Valuable productive mines of coal and iron have been found in the neighborhood, within a few miles of the town. The white houses of the town, sloping up from the sea, are encompassed by vineyards and mulberry gardens, and the numerous villas of its merchants. BAALBEC, at the head or north end of the valley Bekaa, near the source of the Leitani, 50 miles E. N. E. of Beyrout, formerly a considerable town, is now a mere

village with 200 inhabitants. It occupies the site of Heliopolis, (Sun-town,) and contains several splendid remains, the principal of which is that of the temple of Baal, or the Sun-god, a beautiful building, with a Corinthian peristyle, built in the reign of Antoninus Pius, on the site of a more ancient fabric, fragments of which are still visible. North of Baalbec is the highest part of Lebanon, and on one of the roads from Baalbec to Tripoli are the ancient cedars of Lebanon, which the people of the country believe to be the remains of the identical forest which furnished the timber for Solomon's temple. Only seven of the old trees remain, but there are many hundreds of young trees growing up to supply their places. An ascent of three hours from the cedars brings the traveller to the snow-capt top of Lebanon, from which there is a splendid view of the mountain regions, of the plains at their base, and the not far distant Mediterranean. Before reaching this point, however, vegetation has expired, with the exception of a few stunted cypresses, which lose their spiral form, and, throwing out their branches sideways, have the appearance of small oaks. Every year, on Transfiguration day, the Maronites, the Greeks, and the Armenians, celebrated a mass at the foot of one of the ancient cedars, on a homely altar of stone.

DAMASCUS (EL SHAM of the Arabs) is situated in a beautiful plain, on the east side of Eastern Lebanon, watered by numerous streams which flow from the mountains eastward into the desert, where their surplus water forms a lake or marsh, called the Bahr-el-margi, lake of the meadows. The plain is so extensive, that the hills which bound it to the north and south can merely be discerned from the opposite sides. Toward the north-west the mountain "Ashlooh" bounds it in the distance, and on the south-east it extends to the "Jebel-Haouran." The city stands on the west side of the plain, not more than two miles from the place where the river Barrada issues from a cleft in the mountains, is studded with mosques and minarets, and is encompassed with gardens, extending in common estimation not less than 30 miles round, which gives it the appearance of a noble city in a vast wood. The gardens are planted with fruit trees of all kinds, and are kept fresh and verdant by the waters of the Barrada, which are distributed by canals and streamlets. The city is built of brick, and its streets are narrow and gloomy, the inhabitants reserving their magnificence for their interior courts and palaces. Several of the streets have rivulets running through them, which furnish plentifully the great eastern luxury of water. The principal building is the great mosque, which was formerly a Christian church, and now possesses so peculiarly sacred a character, that Franks are rarely permitted to enter it. This cathedral is one of the finest that the zeal of the early Christians produced; the architecture, which is Corinthian, is very superior in beauty and variety to that of any other mosque in Ottoman Asia. Next to it in architectural importance is the grand khan, a large and splendid building, with a very lofty roof supported by granite pillars, and surmounted by a large dome in the centre. The inhabitants of Damascus, amounting to about 100,000, have a bad reputation in the east, where Sham Shoumi, "the wicked Damascene," has even passed into a proverb. Damascus has long been the most flourishing city in Syria, a distinction which it owed to the excellent character of several successive pashas, through whose exertions the whole of the territory assumed an improved and cultivated appearance. It has lost the manufacture of sword blades, for which it was famous in the middle ages; but it still has considerable manufactures of silk and cotton; and the fruits of the neighboring plain, dried and prepared into sweetmeats, are sent to every part of Turkey. Damascus is a

place of the highest antiquity, and is the point of union for the caravans of pilgrims from the north and the east of Asia, who travel towards the Holy Land of Arabia under the guardianship of its pasha. On this account it has received the name of "the Gate of the Kaaba;" but, what is of more importance, the resort of pilgrims produces a great trade, the pilgrims being careful, and indeed being expressly allowed by the Koran, to combine traffic with the more pious object of their journey. Ophthalmia and intermittent fevers are very prevalent; the former disease is attributed to the extensive irrigation, and the latter to the exhalations of the Bahr-el-margi, which, in summer, becomes a pestilential swamp.

JERUSALEM (EL KHODDES of the Arabs) stands on part of four small hills, nearly surrounded by deep ravines, and is enclosed with Gothic embattled walls, about two miles and a half in circumference. The houses are heavy square masses, very low, without chimneys or windows, with terrace roofs or domes on the top, and presenting the appearance of prisons or tombs. The streets are narrow, dusty, and unpaved. The population has been variously estimated at from 20,000 to 30,000. The manufactures consist chiefly of objects accounted sacred; as shells of mother-of-pearl, considered as badges of pilgrimage, crosses and beads made of the stones of dates, of hardwood, or of black fetid limestone from the Dead Sea. These holy toys are purchased in large quantities by pilgrims and travellers. The principal support of the city is derived from the numerous pilgrims who resort to it from all parts of the east, to visit the holy places. The principal and most conspicuous edifice is the mosque of Omar, built on the site of Solomon's Temple, and inferior in holiness only to the Beitullah (House of God) at Mecca. It is an octagon, standing in the middle of an oblong square area, paved with white marble. The walls are externally covered with painted tiles, adorned with arabesques and verses from the Koran in gold letters, and altogether, it is one of the finest buildings in the Mohamedan world. It stands on the east side of the city, overlooking the deep valley of Jehoshaphat. The Church of the Holy Sepulchre, the grand object of attraction to the Christian pilgrims, was built originally by Helena, the mother of Constantine the Great, on a site which was supposed to include the scene of the greatest events of the history of our religion, the crucifixion, the entombment, and the resurrection of our Saviour. It contained also, till recently, the tombs of Godfrey and Baldwin, the first Latin kings of Jerusalem, which, however, have now disappeared; and a rent is shown in the natural rock, supposed to have been produced by the earthquake which happened at the crucifixion. In October, 1808, the ancient church was destroyed by fire; and in its stead the present building was erected, at an expense of upwards of £200,000, by the Greeks and Armenians, whose clergy have, in consequence, usurped the principal charge of the holy places, which was formerly possessed by the Latins. Of the thousands of Christian pilgrims who annually visit Jerusalem during Lent, almost the whole are of the Greek, Armenian, and other oriental churches, with scarcely a Catholic among them. Baron Geramb states, that at the period of his pilgrimage, in 1832, there were only himself and three other Roman Catholics among 4,000 pilgrims. There are three convents, belonging respectively to the Latins, the Greeks, and the Armenians, where travellers and pilgrims are hospitably entertained. The Mount of Olives overlooks the city on the east side, on the summit of which is a mosque, built on the site of a church erected by St. Helena, and occupying the very spot from which Christ ascended. In a kind of chapel, in the centre, is to be seen



the print left in the rock by the left foot of our Saviour ! The temperature at Jerusalem is exceedingly changeable ; it has happened, that in the morning the heat has been suffocating, while at night snow has fallen. The city stands about 2,750 feet above the level of the sea, in the midst of a hilly country which is little better than a desert.

BETHLEHEM, 7 miles S. W. by S. of Jerusalem, the place where our Saviour was born, is still a large village, with 3,800 inhabitants, and contains a fine church, built over the site of the place of the nativity, and visited of course by numbers of pilgrims. JAFFA (Iaffa or Yaffa,) 40 miles N. W., formerly Joppa, one of the most ancient sea-ports in the world, its history stretching far back into the twilight of the early ages, is situated in a fine plain on the shore of the Mediterranean, and owes its continued celebrity and importance to its being the port of Jerusalem. As a station for vessels it is one of the worst on the coast. The present town stands on a promontory jutting into the sea, rising about 150 feet above its level, and offering on all sides picturesque and varied prospects. The interior of the town has all the appearance of a poor village. The streets are very narrow, uneven, and dirty ; the inhabitants are estimated at between 4,000 and 5,000, of whom the greater part are Turks and Arabs ; the Christians being only about 600, and consisting of Roman Catholics, Greeks, Maronites, and Armenians. The Latins, Greeks, and Armenians, have each a small convent for the reception of pilgrims.

DIYARBEKR or DIARBEKR, the ancient Amida, is situated on the right bank of the Tigris, with intervening gardens between the river and the town. The town in its prosperity contained 40,000 families or houses, and numberless looms in constant work ; it enjoyed an active trade with Bagdad, in India, and with Aleppo, in European produce, and was one of the most flourishing and wealthy cities of Asia. The plain was cultivated in every part, and covered with villages, and within three miles of the gates were several villages, each containing from 400 to 500 houses, and more than one Christian church. But since the commencement of the present century, all this prosperity was destroyed by the Kurds, who plundered the caravans, and kept the city in a state of siege. The assailants were repressed by Reshid Pasha, in 1837, and the communication re-opened ; but since his defeat at Nezib, by the Egyptians, in 1839, the Kurds are said to have again broken loose. The climate, though excessively hot in summer, cannot be considered unhealthy, and in winter the temperature is delightful. The Tigris is not used as a channel of communication so high up, but rafts of timber are sometimes floated down from the mountains above the town.

HILLAH is a large well-built town of 10,000 inhabitants, 460 miles from the Persian Gulf. About two-thirds of the town are on the right bank of the Euphrates, the rest on the left, with a bridge of boats between them, 450 feet long, the depth of water being 18 feet at the lowest season. The bazaars are good, and well supplied with meat, fish, rice, and even luxuries ; the city is regularly governed, in general quiet, peaceable, and well disposed towards strangers and Franks. It is surrounded with a good wall, and the governor's house is also fortified. Below Hillah are the towns of Dewaniyeh, Lemlun, and Semaubah, the last of which is celebrated for its cotton cloths, which are much esteemed throughout the East.

Hillah is situated within the precincts of *Babylon*, and built with bricks dug from its ruins. A few shapeless mounds are all that now remain of *the glory of the Chaldees' excellency* ; the majority of which lie on the left, or east bank of the Euphrates, within five miles north of Hillah. But the most

remarkable of all the ruins is on the west side of the river, five miles south of Hillah. This is an oblong hill surmounted by a tower, the circumference of its base measuring exactly 722 yards, and its height to the bottom of the tower 190 feet. The tower itself is a solid mass of the finest kiln-burnt brick-masonry, 35 feet in height, making the total height of the pile 225 feet. Two distinct stages of building are discernible along the sides of the hill; the tower forms apparently part of a third, above which there may have been others, decreasing gradually in their external dimensions so as to give the entire building a pyramidal form. The whole summit and sides are furrowed into deep hollows and channels, strewn with broken bricks, stamper with three, four, six, and seven lines of writing; stones, glass, tiles, large cakes of bitumen, and petrified and vitrified substances. Around it are several mounds and ruins; it is called Birs Nimrood, and is believed by many to be the identical Tower of Babel, afterwards converted into the Temple of Bel, and destroyed by Xerxes, and which Alexander the Great attempted to restore.

MOSUL is a large, ancient, gloomy-looking town, in a state of visible decay. It stands on the west bank of the Tigris, and contains about 35,000 inhabitants, with the remains of some fine buildings. It carries on some trade, has some unimportant manufactures, and gives name to the well-known article *muslin* (*mosuline*, cloth of Mosul.) Exactly opposite, on the east side of the Tigris, is the village of Nunia, occupying a part of the site of the ancient Nineveh; the only remains are mounds of earth, like those of Babylon, which are nearly a mile in circumference, but neither so high nor so perfect. About a day's ride north of Mosul is the monastery of Rabban-Hormuzd, belonging to the Chaldean Christians, and the residence of their metropolitan; and about a mile nearer the city is the village of Al Kosh, the reputed birth-place of the Prophet Nahum, and contains his tomb.

BAGDAD stands on the Tigris; it is a large, but decayed city, surrounded by an ancient embattled brick wall, about seven miles in circumference. The city is built entirely of brick, and contains no buildings of either elegance or importance. The larger portion stands on the left bank of the river, which is crossed by a bridge of boats 670 feet long. The desert comes up to the walls. Bagdad was founded by the Khalif Mansoor-il-Dewaniky, in the 139th year of the Hejira, or A. D. 766, and continued to be the residence of his successors till A. D. 1258, when it was taken, and the Khalifate terminated, by Holagu, the son of Genghis Khan. It came finally into the possession of the Turks, in 1638; and was recently recovered by the sultan, from the dominion of an almost independent pasha. Three miles north of the city is the mosque of Casmeeen or Kasmeeen, built over the remains of the eleventh of the twelve Imams, and forming one of the handsomest structures in Mesopotamia; and, just without the city wall, on a sloping eminence, surrounded by an extensive cemetery, is the tomb of Zobeide, the well-known wife of the Khalif Haroun-al-Rashid. The climate of Bagdad is salubrious, but, in the strictest sense of the word, excessive; the summer's heat reaching 120°, and sometimes even 140° Fahrenheit; and the winter's cold being reduced very low by the icy breeze from the neighboring mountains.

About twenty miles below Bagdad are the ruins of two ancient cities, on the opposite banks of the Tigris. SELEUCIA, (*Seleukeia*), built by Seleucus Nicator, king of Syria, once contained 600,000 citizens, and engrossed all the commerce and the wealth of Babylon; but time, violence, and the

inundations of the river, have levelled everything. Bricks, tiles, and pottery of every colour, stones, glass, shells, compose what now remains of the once magnificent city. On the opposite, or eastern bank of the river, are the ruins of CTESIPHON, built by the Parthians, within three miles of Seleucia, in order to dispeople and impoverish it. It contains one magnificent monument in a perfect state of preservation; but without an emblem to throw any light upon its history, and with no proof or character to be traced on any brick or wall. This stupendous fragment, called Tauk-Kesra, is built of fine furnace-burnt bricks, and measures 300 feet along the front or eastern face. It is divided by a high semicircular arch of 86 feet span, which rises to the height of 103 feet, and is supported by walls 16 feet thick. All around are fragments of walls and masses of brickwork, and vast structures encumbered with heaps of earth. On account of the vicinity of these two cities, the Arabs gave them the common name of *Al Modain*, (the two cities. Ctesiphon was taken and sacked by the Arabs in A. D. 637, and the plunder obtained was immense. This event was followed by its desertion and gradual decay, and the building of Bagdad finally reduced both of these cities to insignificance.

KORNAH, (Koorna, Kûrnah, Corneh,) the *Apamea* of the Syrian Greeks, stands on the point of land formed by the confluence of the two great rivers. It is now an insignificant place; but extensive ruins attest its former importance. On the west bank of the Shat-el-Arab, 48 miles below Kornah, and 86 from the sea, stands BUSSRAH, a large commercial city. The town is of an irregular oblong square form, surrounded by brick walls 8 or 9 miles in circumference, forming an effectual defence against the Arabs; but of the enclosed space not more than a fourth is occupied by houses, the rest being partly filled with ruins, or partly laid out in corn fields, rice grounds, date groves, and gardens. The walls, and most of the houses, are built of sun-dried bricks. The population has varied at different times from 500,000 to 600,000, of whom one-half are Arabs, one-fourth Persians, and the other fourth a mixture of Turks, Armenians, Hindoos, Jews, Catholic Christians, and a few Kurds and Europeans. The situation is so highly favorable for trade, that in spite of every obstacle, and an unsafe passage by land and water, it continues to enjoy a commerce sufficient to enrich many by its profits, and to furnish the means of subsistence to its large population. The ruins of the more ancient BALSORA are at the distance of eight miles from the modern city. The immediately surrounding country is a desert, with a horizon as level as the sea, and is covered with water for six months of the year. On the east bank of the Shat-el-Arab, and on the north side of the Hafar Canal, below Bussrah, is MOHAMMERAH, a small place where the steam vessels occasionally stop.

There are several valuable islands belonging to Ottoman Asia which require a short notice. *CYPRUS* is the largest, containing an area of 3,000 square miles. Formerly very flourishing, rich and populous, it is now almost deserted and full of ruined towns, but is still famed for its excellent wines, cotton and other products. The population is supposed to amount to 60,000, of which two-thirds are Greek. *Nicosia*, in the centre of the island, is a town of about 4,000 families. *Larnaka*, on the south coast, is the chief seat of commerce, and has considerable traffic with Malta, Egypt and Smyrna. *Famagosta*, the ancient Arsinoë, stands on the east coast, and was capital of the island when possessed by the Venetians; it still exhibits many proofs of its former grandeur. *Baffo*, ancient Paphos,

on the south-west, is now a mere village, but contained in former times the temples and groves of Aphrodité-Kupris, (the Cyprian Venus,) the goddess of love and beauty.

RHODOS or the island of Rhodes, containing 460 square miles, enjoys a delightful climate, and was renowned in ancient times for the great wealth and civilization of its people, and for the wisdom of its laws. It acquired a new distinction in the middle ages, when it became the residence of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem. It is now almost deserted, but is still of some importance from its fortifications, and the ship-building yards of its chief town, which bears the same name, and which appears to occupy very nearly the site of ancient Rhodes, one of the most flourishing, commercial and splendid of the Greek cities. The population of the island is about 24,000.

SAMOS, 50 miles south of Smyrna, and separated by a channel, only about a quarter of a mile wide, from the promontory of Mycalé, is about 60 miles in circuit, and was famous for the worship and temple of Juno, who is said to have been born in the island. It is very fertile, rises abruptly from the sea, and its people have long been noted for their industry. KHIO or Scio, a beautiful and fertile island west of Smyrna, was celebrated among the ancients for its wines, and in latter times for its college, rich library, printing press and its numerous and industrious population. It is now deserted and covered with ruins, having suffered severely in the Greek war of independence.

Among the other islands may be named those of MYTILINI, ancient Lesbos, the birthplace of Sappho, and now celebrated for its oysters and trade in oil; TAUSHAN and TENEDOS, small rocky islands at the entrance of the Dardanelles, the latter of which produces wines more esteemed than any other in the Archipelago; MARMORA, famous for its marble quarries, and forty or fifty others of little value, but which are almost all connected more or less with some historical event, either of ancient or modern times.

The Scythian or Tartar nation, to which the name of Turks has been peculiarly given, dwelt betwixt the Black and Caspian Seas, and became first known in the seventh century, when Heraclitus, emperor of the east, took them into his service; in which they so distinguished themselves by their fidelity and bravery in the conquest of Persia, that the Arabian and Saracen khalifs had not only select bodies of them for guards, but their armies were composed of them. Thus gradually getting the power into their hands, they set up and dethroned khalifs at pleasure. By this strict union of the Turks with the Saracens or Arabs, the former were brought to embrace the Mahomedan religion, so that they now became intermixed, and jointly enlarged their conquests; but as the Turks became superior to the Saracens, they subdued them.

Genghis-khan, at the head of his horse, issued out of Great Tartary, and made himself master of a vast tract of land near the Caspian Sea, and even of all Persia, and Asia Minor. Incited by his example and success, Solyman, prince of the town of Nera, on the Caspian Sea, in the year 1214, passed Mount Caucasus with fifty thousand men, and penetrated as far as the borders of Syria; and though his career was stopped there by the Genghis-khan Tartars, yet in the year 1219 he penetrated a second time into Asia Minor, as far as the Euphrates. Othman, his grandson, made himself master of several countries and places in Lesser Asia, belonging to the Grecian empire; and having, in the year 1300, assumed the title of Emperor of the Othmans, called his people after his own name. This prince,

among many other towns, took, in the year 1326, Brusa, in Bithynia, which Orchan, his son and successor, made the seat of his empire. Orchan sent Solyman and Amurath, his two sons, on an expedition into Europe; the former of whom reduced the city of Gallipolis, and the latter took Tyrilos. Amurath succeeded his father in the government in 1360—took Ancrya, Adrianople, and Philippolis; and, in 1362, over-ran Servia, and invaded Macedonia and Albania. Bajazet, his son and successor, was very successful both in Europe and Asia, defeating the Christians near Nicopolis; but, in 1401, he was routed and taken prisoner by Tamerlane. His sons disagreed; but Mahomet I. enjoyed the sovereignty, and his son Amurath II. distinguished himself by several important enterprizes, and particularly in the year 1444 gained a signal victory over the Hungarians near Varna. Mahomet II. the greatest of all the emperors, in 1453 made himself master of Constantinople, and reduced the whole Grecian empire under his dominion, subduing twelve kingdoms and two hundred towns. After this, Bajazet II. and Selim I. enlarged the Turkish empire of Europe, Asia, and Africa; and Solyman I. became not less famous for his victory over the Hungarians than for his body of laws.

The succeeding emperors were less successful; for though Mahomet IV. subdued Candia, and laid siege to Vienna, he met with ill success in Hungary; and in the reigns of Solyman II., Achmet II., and Mustapha, the Hungarians and Venetians were so successful against the Turks, that Mustapha II., in 1699, was glad to conclude the peace of Carlowitz. Mahomet III., in 1718, agreed to the peace of Passarowitz; but Achmet V., by the peace of Belgrade, in 1739, re-annexed Servia, and a part of Wallachia, to his territories.

The empire had now exhausted its expansive force, and its decline soon followed. Russia, ever encroaching, seized the country along the Black Sea as far west as the Pruth; Greece became independent; Egypt was lost, and Wallachia and Moldavia can scarcely be considered at the present day as parts of the empire. Indeed, such is the weakness of this yet extensive empire, that its very existence is dependent on the favors of foreign governments; and Russia has the power, if not the immediate will, to drive the whole nation over the frontiers into Asia, and obliterate the Moslem name from the catalogue of European sovereignties. That such will be the ultimate fate of Turkey few can doubt; it is merely a matter of time and convenience, and as certain of fulfilment as the ultimate annexation of the whole of Mexico and Canada to the United States.

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## ARABIA.

(BELED-EL-ARAB—JEZIRAT-EL-ARAB—ARABISTAN.)

ARABIA is a country of great extent, and of much historical interest. It is situated between 12° and 36° north latitude, and the meridians of 32° and 60° east, and is bounded by the Persian Gulf on the east, the Arabian Sea and Indian Ocean on the south, and the Red Sea on the west, having an irregular boundary on the north, stretching across the Syrian Desert from the Mediterranean to the head of the Persian Gulf. Its extreme length is

about 1,700 miles, and its breadth varies from 800 to 1,100 miles. The superficial area is computed at 834,400 square miles. The amount of population is very uncertain, but it is generally stated at from 9,000,000 to 12,000,000—perhaps 10,000,000 might be a near approximation.

Arabia is one of the very largest peninsulas of the world, and appears to be an immense pile of naked mountains and table-lands, encircled by a belt of flat, dry, sandy ground, along the sea-coasts. The north-western portion is mountainous, and the triangular peninsula of Mount Sinai, formed by the forks of the Red Sea, is especially rugged. A continuation of the ridge of the Anti-Libanus, after skirting the Dead Sea and El-Ghor, penetrates Arabia, and runs along the coast of the Red Sea, increasing in elevation as it extends southward, and is prolonged in a line parallel to the Indian Ocean as far as Oman. These mountains diverge into the interior in ridges, which increase in elevation as they recede from the coast, and the distant peaks have a rugged, pointed outline. Between their bases and the shore extends a lowland, varying in width, but susceptible of cultivation only in a few spots. No part of Arabia contains rivers in the proper signification of the term, but the coast-lands are intersected by "wadies" or ravines, which contain torrents during the rainy season. The dryness of the atmosphere, however, is so great, that it sometimes does not rain for several years together; and it is only, therefore, those lands which lie at the base of the hills, and can be watered artificially, that are cultivated; for without the help of the wady-torrents, which are interrupted by dams, and turned from their courses upon the lands, scarcely any crops could be raised. The peninsula, however, contains many well-watered spots, and wells are interspersed throughout the deserts in numerous oases.

The seas which wash Arabia are of the highest commercial importance, and have been celebrated from the first ages for their many advantages, and are intimately connected with some of the most interesting events in the history of mankind. The Red Sea is a great inlet of the Indian Ocean, extending in a north-westerly direction, between Arabia and Africa, a distance of 1,400 miles, with a breadth varying from 120 to 200. In its northern portion it is divided into two smaller gulfs, those of Suez and Akaba. The Gulf of Suez extends about 200 miles in length, with a breadth varying from 10 to 40 miles; the Gulf of Akaba is about 100 long, but only 7 or 8 wide at its entrance, and has the appearance of a narrow, deep ravine, along which the hills rise in some places perpendicularly at the distance of 200 feet from the water. The Red Sea is full of coral reefs, and the central navigable channel narrow, but very deep. Though not subject to the monsoons, storms are very frequent, and the danger to shipping great. The Red Sea communicates with the ocean by the Strait of Bab-el-mandeb (gate of tears,) which measures between the opposite shores nearly 17 miles across, but is divided by the Island of Perim into two portions, of which the eastern is only 2 miles wide, and the western 13 miles. The strait is formed by the approach of the Ras Bab-el-mandeb and the Ras Sejan; the former on the Arabian side, and the latter, a gloomy-looking peak projecting from the African coast.

Beyond the strait is the Gulf of Arabia, Aden or Bab-el-Mandeb, which extends east and west nearly 600 miles, with an almost uniform breadth of about 200. On the south coast of Arabia is the large open bay of Koorya-Moorya. The gulf of Oman extends 320 miles from south-east to south-west, between Arabia and Persia, and where it meets the Persian Gulf has

only a width of about 40 miles. The latter is a large body of water which penetrates 600 miles into the continent, in a north-western direction from the strait of Oman, with a breadth varying from 230 to 120 miles. The Arabian shore, for nearly 400 miles, is lined with a great pearl bank extending half way across the gulf. It is estimated that 30,000 persons are annually employed in the pearl fisheries; and the annual product is stated at from £400,000 to £500,000 in value. The heat of the atmosphere of the Persian Gulf is not surpassed by that of any other place in the world. At its northern extremity it receives the waters of the great rivers Euphrates, Tigris, &c.

There are several islands in the Red Sea and around the southern coast, but these are generally small and require no description. The islands of the Persian Gulf are more important. Bahrein or Aval is a large island in the middle of a bay on the southern shore, measuring 28 miles in length and 10 broad. The interior is occupied by a range of hills, but its shores are low and surrounded with shoals. It is very fertile, and covered with plantations of date trees. The chief town, Manama, is a large and populous place at the northern end of the island, with 40,000 inhabitants, who carry on an extensive trade with the tribes of the interior, but the principal source of their prosperity is the pearl fishery. Several other islands lie in the neighborhood, and the whole are surrounded with shoals and flats. The bay which contains these islands extends 70 miles inland between Ras Reccan and Ras Tanhora, but is so completely filled with shoals as to be quite unnavigable for ships of burden.

The climate of Arabia is in a great measure similar to that of northern Africa. The sky is generally cloudless, and rain seldom falls. The temperature in the low coast districts is intense, sometimes rising to upwards of 100° Fahr. in the shade, with an annual average of 85°. In the hilly countries and on the high table-lands, however, the climate is cool, and frost is sometimes but rarely experienced. At night the stars shine forth with a brilliancy unknown in other regions. In the driest tracts, near the sea, the dews are singularly copious, but the natives nevertheless sleep in the open air; and Niebuhr says that he never slept more soundly than when he found his bed all wet with dew in the morning. In the desert the cold of night is in proportion to the heat of the day; fevers, notwithstanding, appear to be unknown; and the Bedouin\* who sleeps in the sand receives additional vigor and vivacity from the purity of the air which he breathes in his slumbers.

The mineral kingdom of Arabia is very limited, both in extent and variety of products. Neither gold nor silver are found; but the latter exists in small quantities in the argentiferous lead ores of Oman. Iron mines are wrought in the north of Yemen, and rock salt near Loheia, and in several other places. The beds of the Red Sea and Persian Gulf abound in coral, and in the southern shore of the latter is the great pearl bank of Bahrein.

This deficiency of mineral wealth is fully compensated in the richness of the indigenous vegetation. The Indian fig, the date-tree, which furnishes a staple article of food to the desert tribes; the cocoa palm, the fan palm, and other sorts of palms and fig-trees, are abundant; while the banana, almond, apricot, pear, apple, quince, orange, acacia, which produces the

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\* A term corrupted from the Arabic "Badwi," which means an inhabitant of the desert, and is derived from the noun "badw," an open country or desert.

gum-arabic, the sensitive plant, and other mimosas, with the balsam-tree and tamarind, diversify the luxuries of the country, and produce many articles of commercial importance. There is, however, little timber fit for building, the woods generally being light and porous. Among the shrubs the coffee-plant is the most important; but besides this, the indigo-shrub, the castor-oil plant, the senna, aloes, storax, sesamum, cotton, sugar-cane, betel, nutmeg, all sorts of melons and pumpkins, and a great number of dye-yielding plants, attain to that perfection which has rendered them so famous in all markets; and few countries yield so plentifully those essences used by the perfumer, as lavender, pink, daffodil, lily, &c. Wheat, corn, and dhourra abound in the plains of Yemen and other fertile districts; also barley, with which the Arabs feed their horses, and beans, which serve as food for their asses. Manna, answering exactly to that described by Moses as the food of the Israelites, is produced abundantly from a little thorny shrub in all the deserts.

The horse of Arabia is a noble animal—spirited, active, and of the most generous temper; and it has been described as the most compact piece of powerful and efficient mechanism in the brute creation, but it is of small size and not remarkable for beauty. The Arabs pay the greatest attention to its genealogy and education. It is their faithful friend, and they treat it as such. No abuse of the spur or whip blunts its sensations, but it is treated with a familiarity and tenderness which produce gentleness and attachment. For chargers the Arab horses are unrivalled. It appears delighted with the din of battle, and its spirit rises with the conflict, and it dashes into the fray reckless of the volleys of musketry and cannon pealing around,—even when struck with shot,

“Staggering, yet stemming all, his lord unharm’d he bears.”

It will watch its master when he falls from his saddle in the flight, and not only shield him but neigh for assistance. But the horses of Arabia are of two breeds: the one called “Kadeshi” (of unknown descent) is in no higher estimation than the common horses of this country, and is used for draught, and to carry heavy loads;—the other is the “Koheili,” or Kohlani, of ancient and noble pedigree, which is the true Arab to which the above remarks refer. The best horses are bred in the Syrian deserts. Nothing can be compared to the beauty and gracefulness of all their motions, and none of the Turkish horses approach them in agility and swiftness. Like their masters, the Arab horses live all the year round in the open air.

Next to the horse in importance is the camel, which is as much a slave as the horse is the friend of the Arab. It carries him across the desert, and while its milk supplies him with a luxurious nourishment its hair is converted into a covering for his tent, and its flesh provides a dainty morsel for his holidays. The camels of Arabia are of the one-humped species, and of two varieties: the dromedary or swift camel, and the common working camel.

The asses of Arabia, unlike their congeners of Europe, are large and so spirited, that it has become a proverb to say of a person of great vivacity that he is as brisk as an ass! Oxen and cows with a hump, rock-goats, gazelles, sheep with broad, thick tails, hyænas, panthers, ounces, jackals, wolves, foxes, wild boars, hares, jerboas, and monkies, are among the other animals found in Arabia. Among the birds are eagles, falcons, ostriches,



storks and game, and small birds of all kinds. Domestic poultry is very plentiful in the cultivated districts. Pelicans and other sea fowls are numerous on the coasts, and the seas, gulfs, and bays abound in fish. There are also various kinds of serpents, lizards, and ants; and the formidable locust swarms in the deserts. These last the Arabs dry, and roast or boil them for food. They are exposed for sale, strung on threads, in all the city markets. The "mukin" or red species is the fattest, and when dried and sprinkled with salt is considered a wholesome and nutritious food.

The Arabs are of the Causasian or white race of mankind, and speak various dialects of the Semetic language, which is celebrated for its beauty and extraordinary copiousness. The people are all Mahomedan, and are divided into the three classes of Bedouins, husbandmen, and citizens. The modes of life of the two latter are not essentially different from the same classes in other countries: it is principally the Bedouins that exhibit the peculiarities of the Arab character. The stationary Arabs are somewhat above the average stature; they are robust and well formed, their complexion sun-burned and brown, the mouth well defined, teeth well set, beautiful, and white as ivory, and the ear beautifully formed. In the women the outline is especially graceful, and the elegance of their attitude and carriage admirable. The Bedouins are generally divided into tribes, which are scattered on the confines of the cultivated regions and along the edges and oases of the desert. They have generally a very strong resemblance to the settled Arabs, but their eyes are more sparkling; they are of inferior stature, and more slightly built. They have lively imaginations, are haughty and independent in character, suspicious, dissembling, and restless, but brave and intrepid. They are scrupulously religious, hospitable, and intelligent. They are excellent horsemen, and expert in the use of the lance and the javelin. They are also very skilful as tradesmen and mechanics. The manners and customs of both classes are, however, in most respects very nearly the same: they all use the same language, profess the same religion, and their mode of living is nearly the same. In general they are sober and temperate; they eat seldom and consume little flesh, and easily support all kinds of privation. The men shave their heads and allow their beards to grow; the women allow their hair to grow, and often color it and their eyebrows with a paint which strengthens the hair and imparts to it a beautiful black hue. They also dye with a liquor of a yellow color, procured from the henna plant, the edges of the feet and hands, reaching to the points of the toes and fingers. The life of a Bedouin is one continued round of idleness and amusement. When no pastime calls him abroad he loiters in his tent, smokes his pipe, or stretches himself under the shade of a tree. He has no relish for domestic pleasures; he values nothing so much as his horse, which accompanies all his movements. Plunder is his great business, and, when not at war with his neighbor, he is making incursions into the settlements of distant towns, or revelling in the rich booty of plundered cities. The Bedouin, indeed, is the true child of nature, and exhibits a strange combination of virtues and vices. Originally the Arab was a fearful being—savage, relentless, blood-thirsty, and a man-eater. From this state he was raised by the religion of Mahomet and the new impulse given thereby to his active intelligence. The Arabs have been distinguished in all ages for their national independence—they have never become a part of any of the great empires, nor

have they suffered from barbaric invasion. This may partly be accounted for by the physical condition of the country, for while it presents little to allure a conqueror, it offers many difficulties to an invader. All the valuable part of the country is Yemen, and there the foreigner has settled and taken possession; but elsewhere all is barren and profitless, and accordingly has been left in a state of normal independence, its desert condition being its true protection. The Arabs are descended from Ishmael, the son of Abraham. Their early history is obscure. It was only from the times of Mahomet that they acquired what may be termed an historical character; for, under his successors in the civil and ecclesiastical authority which he founded, the Arabs burst from their deserts like a torrent, and made themselves masters of Syria, Assyria, Persia, Egypt, North Africa, and Spain. The sovereigns took the title of Khalif, transferred the seat of government to Damascus, and Kufa, and latterly to Bagdad, on the Tigris; and the Arabs that followed their chiefs into the cities and fertile countries, subject to his dominions, became a very polished people, and carried the pursuits of literature and philosophy to a high degree of excellence, while Europe was buried in the darkness of the middle ages. As the Khalifate declined, the natives of the peninsula relapsed into their former state of wild independence, in which they continue at the present day.

The nature of the country keeps the Arabs divided into petty tribes, and nowhere admits of large bodies being consolidated into powerful states, and thereby acquiring supremacy over the whole nation, and founding such a monarchical despotism as has always prevailed in the more fertile and populous countries of Asia. The Arab governments are, accordingly, of the simplest kind, and their princes have very limited powers. The prevailing principle of government is patriarchal, where the hereditary chief of the tribe is the real or reputed descendant of their common ancestor. The chiefs, who are called Sheiks, and the more powerful of them, Emirs, lead the tribes to battle, administering justice and declaring peace or war, but seldom without the counsel of the Elders of the tribe. The Sheiks, however, though the princes of independent communities, are in no respect to be compared with European sovereigns; for their whole mode of life is distinguished by the utmost simplicity, and they live on the most familiar terms with all their subjects. Sometimes, however, these princes use their powers despotically, but their certain reward is deposition and the election of some other to fill their places. The governments of the desert tribes are all patriarchal, but in the cultivated districts very despotic princes are to be found. The Arabs in the north-west and along the shores of the Red Sea own the sway of the Pasha of Egypt, and those of Syria and Mesopotamia that of the Sultan; but the orders of these are seldom obeyed, and their power only nominal.

Except only in articles of the commonest necessity, there is scarcely any such thing as manufacturing industry in all Arabia. But in agriculture some districts have made considerable advances, and their modes of irrigation are well adapted to the physical surface of their country. In Yemen the contrivances for this purpose are elaborate and extensive. Terraces are formed, and dams to retain the water, which is also raised from wells to irrigate the fields. In harvest the crops are pulled up by the roots and hay is cut down with the sickle.

The commerce of the country, though much reduced from what it was before the discovery of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope, is

still not inconsiderable, and is carried on chiefly by the caravans which annually arrive at Mecca from all parts of the Mahomedan world. The articles of necessary use are furnished by India; those of luxury by Europe, and fire arms by Persia and Ottoman Asia. The principal exports are coffee, the most important of all; pearls, dried dates, skins, horses, senna leaves, indigo, gums, the produce of Arabia; and benzoin, incense and myrrh, which are brought from Africa, though they pass in commerce for the productions of Arabia. The principal articles of import, besides those already alluded to, are stuffs, sugar and the other productions of India, steel, iron, cannons, lead, tin, cochineal, cloth, false pearls, arms and many other manufactures and productions of foreign skill.

Learning was never naturalized in Arabia, and before the time of Mahomet, ignorance of written learning was so far from being accounted a disgrace, that even the prophet, a scion of the most noble house of all Arabia, was deficient in this respect, and at the present day judges are frequently illiterate men. It cannot therefore be supposed that education in Arabia is very good, or widely diffused. Public provision is, however, made for the education of youth, and a teacher is no uncommon part of the domestic establishment of distinguished families; and in the cities but few are found who cannot both read and write. Education is given gratuitously in the mosques, but it is of a very limited description, consisting entirely of elementary studies and the doctrines of the Mahomedan religion. Besides these, there are in many of the larger towns schools of a higher character; colleges, in fact, in which the higher sciences—mathematics, astronomy, astrology, and medicine are taught; but such courses are only granted to the few who are to become the future governors, lawyers, doctors, and priests. In many of the towns the public schools are falling to decay; and those qualified to conduct them prefer wandering over the country as poets and orators, reciting and singing the glories of the country, in which characters they are welcomed and rewarded by the Sheiks, as well as the people generally. There is no public provision for female education, and among the Bedouins whole tribes can neither read nor write. A very great obstacle to the advancement of education in Arabia is the prejudice of the natives against printing. There was not a few years ago, and perhaps there is not at present, a single printing press in the country.

Arabia has long been divided into Arabia Petræa, (Stony,) Arabia Felix, (Happy,) and Arabia Deserta, (the Desert.) Arabia Petræa comprised the region between Judæa and the Red Sea, and was so called from its chief town Petra, the capital of the Nabatheans; Arabia Felix extended along the southern coast, and was so called from its being supposed to produce the so much coveted gems and spices of the east, and Arabia Deserta comprised all the central, eastern and northern parts of the peninsula. These distinctions, however, were never known to the Arabs themselves, nor are the native writers agreed as to the proper divisions of their country; and the extent of the small governments, which never have been properly determined, are so constantly fluctuating, that it is impossible to ascertain their location at any time. No two geographers, indeed, have ever agreed on this point, and the number of names of the states are even a matter of dispute. It appears, nevertheless, that the Arabs do attach certain names to certain ill-defined portions of their country. These divisions, according to the best authorities, have the names of Hedjaz, Yemen, Oman, Lachsa or Hassa, and Barria or Bar-abad.

**HEDJAZ** comprises Arabia Petræa and all the east coast of the Red Sea to the frontiers of Yemen, and this includes the Beled-el-Harem or Holy Land of Arabia. In this division are Mecca and Medina, the ancient city of Petra, the seaport town of Tor, Akaba, Karek, &c.

**YEMEN** comprises the south-west part of the peninsula, including "Tehama" or the low country on the Red Sea, and "Hadramaut," or in other words, the whole low country along the Red Sea and the ocean to the south of the 19th or 20th parallel of north latitude. Within this territory are: 1: The "Imamat of Sanaa" or Yemen proper; 2: the "State of Abou-Arish," between Mecca and Yemen; 3: the "countries of Kobail" or Hashid-el-Bekil, between Sanaa and Medjid, inhabited by several warlike tribes, who form a kind of confederation and furnish mercenary soldiers; 4: the "country of Aden" at the south-west extremity of the peninsula, and "Hadramaut," which extends along the ocean to the east of Sanaa. The principal towns are Sanaa, Mocha, Aden, Makullah, Sihun, Loheia Dafar, &c.

**OMAN** comprises the eastern angle of the peninsula, but its inland districts are but little known. Muscat, Sohar and Rostak are the principal cities.

**LACHSA** or **HASSA** extends to the north-west of Oman along the south coast of the Persian Gulf, nearly as far as the Euphrates, including the island of Bahrein, and is divided into several states. The inhabitants obtain a livelihood from piracies and the pearl fisheries of the Gulf. It contains the towns of Khaima, El-Khatif, Fouf, Koueit, &c.

**BARRIA** or **BAR-ABAD**, the interior of Arabia, comprises two principal divisions. 1st: "Nedjid," which includes all the inland deserts from Yemen and Oman in the south to the head of the Persian Gulf and the Red Sea, and 2d: the "Syrian Desert," which extends from near the Euphrates to the borders of Syria and Palestine. In Nedjid, the only place worth mentioning is **DERREVEH** or **Deraiah**, the capital of the ephemeral empire of the Wahabees, situated at the entrance of a deep and narrow valley which is enclosed by arid mountains. It contained 28 mosques, 30 colleges, and 2,500 houses; but in 1819 it was quite deserted, and we have no information of its present condition.

**MECCA** (Mekka or Bekka) is situated in the Holy Land of Arabia, in a barren valley surrounded by mountains, two days' journey from Jiddah its port on the Red Sea. It is celebrated as the birthplace of Mahomet and the cradle of the Musselman traditions. It was here also that Ishmael and his mother took refuge after being driven from Abraham's house by the jealousy of Sarah, and founded the illustrious tribe of Koreish, from which Mahomet was sprung. Mecca may be styled a handsome town; its streets are broad, and its houses lofty, and built of stone. No trees or gardens, however, cheer the eye; and except four or five large houses belonging to the sheriff, two medresses or colleges, and the great mosque, with some buildings and schools attached to it, Mecca has no public edifices to boast of. Neither khans, nor palaces, nor mosques, which adorn other towns of the east, are here to be seen, and the streets are unpaved. The city is supplied with water by a stone conduit from the vicinity of Arafat. But Mecca contains the "beitullah" or House of God, the grand centre of the Mahomedan world, and attracts an immense number of pilgrims every year. The inhabitants are an idle and dissolute race, who, with great professions of sanctity, openly set at defiance all the moral precepts of their religion.

Many of them even neglect its very forms, and consider the fact of their having been born at Mecca sufficient to ensure their salvation. Their principal support is derived from the pilgrims, to whom they let their houses and supply the necessaries of life. Their number was once 100,000, but the invasion of the Wahabees, a new sect which sprung up early in the last century, reduced the population to 18,000. It has since increased, however, and may perhaps at the present day reach to 40,000. The number of pilgrims that visit the city to attend the "hadje" or festival, in November, is generally about 120,000. After the downfall of the Khalifate, Mecca became an independent state under its own sheriff, and is now under the protection of the Turkish Padishah, as head of the Mahomedan religion. In the neighborhood are several other sacred places much visited by the Moslem pilgrims. JIDDAH, the port of Mecca, 55 miles west on the Red Sea, is a well built town on a slope which rises gradually from the sea. The people are mostly foreigners, and are engaged in commerce. The streets are airy, the houses lofty and well built of coral. The population has been stated at from 5,000 to 40,000.

MEDINA is situated about 25 miles north of Mecca. It is a small town surrounded by a good wall, and has long been considered as the principal fortress of the Hedjaz. It was formerly called Yathreb, and received its present name of "Medinat-al-nebi" (prophet's town) from the circumstance of its having become the residence of Mahomet after his flight from Mecca. The great object of attraction is the mosque, which contains the tomb of Mahomet. Without the town are extensive suburbs. YAMBO, a small town on the Red Sea, with a capacious harbor, is considered to be the port of Medina, from which it is distant about 100 miles. The population is very fluctuating, but Lieutenant Wellstead estimates it at about 2,000. No ships resort to the harbor, and its trade is carried on by boats.

In that part of the Hedjaz which corresponds with the ancient Arabia Petræa, are several places of remarkable interest. PETRA, the ancient capital of the Nabatheans, is now deserted, but its site still exhibits many remains of the architectural taste and wealth of its inhabitants. The buildings are excavated in the rocks. It is situated in the "Wady-Mousa," about 64 miles from the head of the Gulf of Akaba. A little to the north-west is Mount Hor, where Aaron was buried. Mount Sinai, and Mount Horeb, or Jebel-Katerin, and the Jebel-Mousa, are situated in the southern part of the triangular peninsula, formed by the forks or branches of the Red Sea, in a gloomy wilderness, consisting of long ranges of rugged rocks, intersected by deep valleys, at the bottom of which are found the only traces of verdure. According to Dr. Robinson, in his "Biblical Researches," it is Jebel-Mousa, that is, the Sinai of Moses, and it is the northern part of it, named Horeb by the Christians, and not the summit, which he believes to be the place from which the law was delivered—there being in front of it a plain, where the people might have stood, but which cannot be seen from the top. Jebel-Katerin, (usually called Sinai,) is situated to the south-west of the Jebel-Mousa, which it overlooks, rising 8,300 feet above the level of the sea. It is doubtful, however, whether or not these mountains be the Sinai and Horeb of Moses, there being another hill in the neighborhood, which, in the opinion of some travellers, better accords with the history; and the honor is also ascribed to Jebel-Serbal, a mountain considerably to the north-west. On the west side of the peninsula is Tor, a small seaport town. AKABA, a Turkish castle, at the head of the gulf, to which it gives its name, is supposed to be near the site of the ancient "Elath" and

"Ezion-Geber," from which the fleets of Solomon sailed for Ophir. It communicates with the Dead Sea by the long narrow valley "El-Arabah," which is supposed to have been traversed by the Jordan before the catastrophe of Sodom and Gomorrah. Between Akaba and Suez is the desert "El-Ty," or, as the Arabs call it, "Tya-beni-Israel," the desert of the Israelites, a desolate tract, covered with black stones, which Burkhardt describes as the most dreary and barren wilderness he had ever beheld.

SANAA, the capital of the Imamatus of Sanaa, one of the most powerful states of Arabia, stands in a beautiful valley, 4,000 feet above the level of the sea, and is a well-built town, surrounded by brick walls and towers. It contains two large palaces, 20 splendid mosques, and is inhabited by about 40,000 persons, chiefly dependent on its trade in coffee. As a state, Sanaa dates from 1626, when the Turks were expelled from the Yemen.

MOCHA or MOKHA, 160 miles south-west of Sanaa, was formerly the principal seaport of the Yemen, and a great mart for coffee, but it is now a miserable village, with a population not exceeding 3,000. ADEN, on the coast of the Indian Ocean, south of Bab-el-mandeb, was once a great emporium of commerce, and has a good harbor, but its trade has been lost, and the town reduced to a heap of ruins. Aden, however, has been taken possession of by the British Indian Government, and is rapidly recovering its importance as a commercial mart. Makullah, Sihun, Loheia, Hodeida, Dafar, &c., all in Yemen, are important commercial stations.

MUSCAT is the capital of a large state in the district of Oman, and its Imam is one of the most powerful princes of Arabia. The town presents a fine appearance from the sea, but consists of narrow and crowded streets, filthy bazaars, and wretched huts, intermingled with low and paltry houses. The palace of the Imam, the governor's house, and some others, however, are substantial buildings. Muscat is important not only as the emporium of a very considerable trade with Arabia, Persia, and India, but also as the principal seaport of Oman. Its imports are chiefly cloth and corn, on which a fixed duty of five per cent. only is levied. The exports, free from all duty, consist chiefly of dates, madder, shark's fins for China, and salted and dried fish. The returns are made principally in bullion and coffee. The population, including that of the suburb Matareah, and consisting of almost every race, numbers about 60,000. The common language is Hindoostanee. The Imam of Muscat claims sovereignty over all the coast of Africa, from Cape Delgado to Cape Guardafui; of the southern coast of Arabia, from Aden to Ras-al-had, and thence forward as far as Bussrah, and of all the coasts and islands in the Persian Gulf, and the oceanic coasts of Persia and Beloochistan, as far as Sind; but whether he exercises any authority or not over these is at least problematical. His yearly revenue amounts to about £700,000. His military force is small, but can be easily increased in a few days to 30,000 well-armed troops. His flag now even crosses the Atlantic, and his traders have visited the ports of the United States. Muscat is considered the hottest town on the globe, and the Arabs emphatically call it *El-jehannum*, or *hell*. There are several other large towns on the coast of Oman; but with the exception of ROSTAK, which is large and well built, there are none of importance in the interior.

RAS-AL-KHYMA, or Khaima, in Lachsa, not far west of Ras Mussendon, is a flourishing town, the residence of the sheik of the Joasmee pirates, and the station of their fleet, which consisted at one time of sixty-five large vessels and eight hundred barques, manned by 19,000 men. All the ships, building yards, and forts were destroyed by the British forces from India,

in 1809, and a second time in 1819, but the town is again as prosperous as ever. Its harbor is the best on the coast. **EL-KHATIF**, a fortified town, situated on a bay, with 6,000 inhabitants, is the most commercial place in this part of Arabia. **FOUF**, the chief town of the country of Lachsa, has a population of 5,000, and is situated in a highly cultivated district. **GRAEN**, or **Koueit**, at the north-west corner of the Persian Gulf, is a town of 10,000 inhabitants, who live by fishing and trade. The pearl fisheries of the coast are very valuable, and produce immense wealth to the neighboring people.

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## PERSIA.

**PERSIA**, in the fullest acceptance of the term, extends from the mountains of Kurdistan to the Indus, and from the Indian Ocean and Persian Gulf to the borders of Turkestan, the Caspian Sea, and the Russian provinces of the Caucasus. The name of Persia, however, is quite unknown to the natives; and whatever may have been the case in former times, the country does not now form one kingdom, but is divided politically into three several independencies, viz: the "Kingdom of Iran," or Persia Proper; "Afghanistan," formerly the Kingdom of Cabul; and "Beloochistan," or Belûchistan.

### THE KINGDOM OF IRAN,

OR **PERSIA PROPER**, is situated between  $25^{\circ} 40'$  and  $39^{\circ} 40'$  north latitude, and between  $44^{\circ}$  and  $62^{\circ}$  east longitude, occupying the western half of geographical Persia. It measures diagonally from Mount Ararat to Cape Jask, about 1,250 miles, and its greatest breadth from north to south is about 850 miles, with a superficial area of 480,000 square miles.

The country presents a singular succession of low arid plains, deserts, mountains and table-lands. The south and south-west, along the shores of the Persian Gulf, forms a long, narrow tract of level, dry and arid country, without rivers; but in traversing which, the eye is sometimes relieved by plantations of date trees and patches of cultivation, which are found near the wells and fresh water rivulets which are thinly scattered over the barren country. It is very hot, and the country is termed "Dushtistan" or "Gurmsir," i. e. warm region. Along the shores of the Caspian there is a corresponding narrow tract, but the climate, though extreme, is more moist, and in winter comfortable. The vegetation is here most luxuriant. The sugar cane is cultivated with success, while the slopes of the mountains are covered with forests of acacias, lindens, oaks and chestnuts, and their summits with cedars and pines. Between these two lowland belts lies the extensive table-land, from 2,500 to 4,000 feet above the ocean. It is, generally speaking, an immense dry salt plain, traversed by ranges of mountains, and including many corresponding valleys, which are indeed the only cultivated and populated parts of the district. This table-land on the north is supported by the great chain of mountains which connects the Himalayas with the Caucasus, and its western and southern boundaries are formed by the mountains of Kurdistan, Louriستان and Buktari, which extend south and south-east from Armenia to the Indian Ocean. The summits of the mountains seldom rise more than 7,000 or 8,000 feet above

their bases, except only the peak of Demavend, which reaches 14,600 feet. But the principal feature of this region is the great extent of its deserts, or sandy and salt plains, which form no inconsiderable portion of that long series of deserts already mentioned as extending across Africa and Asia. The character of these deserts, however, is ever varying. In some places its surface is dry, in others it is a crackling crust of earth covered with effervescent salt, elsewhere it is marshy, and again it wears the semblance of heavy sandy plains or wave-like hillocks, easily drifted by the wind. The principal desert is the "Kuveer," or great salt desert, and there are also the deserts of "Kerman" and "Mekran," and even the low country along the gulf is little better than a desert.

Persia is singularly destitute of water. It has scarcely a river deserving of the name, but it has one or two lakes which may here be noticed. The largest is "Lake Ooroomiah," in the western portion of Azerbaijan, about 83 miles long and 17 where broadest. Its greatest depth is generally 45 feet, but it is subject to great variations both in depth and extent at different times. The water is so salt that no fish can live in it, and is so buoyant that a man can scarcely stand in a depth of three feet, and will actually float on the surface. In shoals which are not agitated by the wind the water forms almost a paste of salt. The lake contains 56 islands and a large peninsula on the east side, formed by a mass of rock 40 miles in circumference, containing 12 villages, and sometimes entirely surrounded by water. Several large streams of bitter brackish water flow into it from the north, and it probably contains numerous sub-aqueous saline springs. The lake is bordered on its west side by the rich alluvial plain of "Selmas," which extends westward to the mountain border of Turkey, and is thickly studded with villages; and in the north-east there is another fertile plain named "Chowal-Mogam," which contains excellent pasturage, but is infested by dangerous kinds of snakes. The climate even in winter is very mild, and in summer the elevation preserves it from the heats of the latitude. The "Lake of Durrah," on the eastern border of the kingdom, is 60 miles in length and 35 in breadth. It receives the river Helmund from Afghanistan near its south-east corner. The water is slightly brackish, but abounds with fish, and great multitudes of water-fowl inhabit its shores. In the dry season it is shallow and overgrown with reeds. In the middle of it is a fertile island named "Koh-i-zur," where the chiefs of Seistan used to take refuge when their country was invaded. The rivers are—the Kizilozan in Azerbaijan; the Tedjen in Khorassan; the Zeinde, which waters the valley of Ispahan; the Kûr in Fars; the Kuran and Jerahi, which fall into the Persian Gulf; the Kara-su, an affluent of the Shat-el-Arab, and some few others, none of which need particular notice. A few islands are found in the Persian Gulf and along the southern shore, some of which are now held by the Imam of Muscat.

The low shores of the Caspian Sea are exposed to oppressive heats in the summer, but the winter is mild, and excessive humidity at all times pervades the atmosphere. Like tropical countries they have a wet season and a dry season. In the plains the rains continue from September to January, but in the mountains it is converted into snow in November. The spring from March to May is the most pleasant and healthy season. The summer is hot and humid, and the plains enveloped in fogs, which occasion fevers and other dangerous diseases. In the central table-lands the hot and dry summers are succeeded by rigorously cold winters. The general character



of the climate, however, is subject to local modifications. The mountain regions of Kurdistan and Azerbaijan enjoy a more equal temperature, but the winters are excessive, and the valley of Shiraz is exempt from both extremes. In descending towards the shores of the Persian Gulf the face of the country undergoes a complete change, and bears a great resemblance both in soil and climate to the opposite regions of Arabia.

The table-lands are entirely destitute of trees, and only in a few places covered at all with vegetation. The soil is generally a hard clay, quite unproductive without irrigation, but wherever water can be procured vegetation is most luxuriant. Wheat is the chief produce; barley, millet and oats are also grown, and on the Caspian shores rice is cultivated with great care. The gardens of Iran are highly celebrated, and few countries surpass it in variety and the flavor of its fruits. Poppies, which produce opium, are cultivated all over the table-land, and in many places saffron is also raised; but the most remarkable vegetable produced is the plant from which assafœtida is produced. The silk worm is extensively reared, and the annual produce of silk has been estimated at 20,000 bales of 216 lbs. each. Hemp, tobacco, and a great variety of gums, medicines and dye-stuffs, are also among the rich products of Persia.

The domestic animals of Persia are horses of several breeds, some of which are considered the finest and the handsomest in the east; camels of the Bactrian and Arabian species, and a mule-breed between the two; horse-ass-mules, asses, wild asses, and beeves. Numerous flocks of goats and sheep constitute the wealth of the nomadic tribes, while antelopes, hares, zebras, foxes and deer, afford amusement to the sportsman. Boars, bears, lions, and the smaller kinds of tigers lurk in the forests and in the mountains, and hyænas and jackals infest the southern provinces. There are also the tame and wild fowls of the same kinds as in Europe, with plenty of pigeons and partridges, eagles, vultures and falcons.

The mineral kingdom of Persia does not seem to be very extensive. Salt indeed is everywhere abundant, but the production of the other minerals is limited to an inconsiderable amount. Copper is found in Mazanderan and Kerman; iron and silver in Azerbaijan; sulphur and nitre in Mount Demavend; torquoises in Khorassan, and naptha and bitumen in Irak. Mineral springs of a medicinal quality are numerous; and near Maragha, in the valley of Lake Ooroomiah, there is a spring whose petrifying qualities are so remarkable that it produces a beautiful transparent stone, called Tabriz marble, which admits of being cut into large slabs which take a good polish, and form a principal ornament in the buildings throughout the country.

The people of Persia are divided into two classes, the fixed and the wandering, or the Sheherees and Eilauts or Iliyats. The former are a mixed race of Turks, Tartars, Arabians, Armenians and Georgians, engrafted on the stock of the ancient Persians, and their general language is a mixture of Arabic with the ancient tongue of Fars. These inhabit the cities, and are a fine race; tall, and in general strong and active. Their complexion varies from a dark olive to that of the pure blonde. They are in general intelligent, polite, and sociable, but prodigal and rapacious. The highest class, from which ministers of state are usually selected, are called "mirzas," and are highly accomplished, and rarely indulge in martial or athletic pursuits, nor do they assume much state. They are distinguished by a calumdaun or inkstand stuck in their girdle, instead of a dagger. The merchants are numerous, and often wealthy; and the shopkeepers and

tradesmen are a very respectable class. The clergy, including the propounders of the law, are a very numerous, wealthy, and powerful body, and secure the highest respect, but they are bigoted and intolerant, and to say a man hates like a Mollah, is to say that he cherishes sentiments of the most inveterate hostility. The cultivators of the soil appear to be in easy circumstances, and their houses comfortable and neat, and well supplied with the necessities of life. The character of the Eilauts or Iliyats is very different from that of the settled inhabitants. They are sincere, hospitable, and brave, but rude, violent and rapacious. They are generally of Turkish or Arabian origin, and consider the Sheherees as a degenerate caste. They are divided into tribes, and while some inhabit villages, others live during the whole year in tents, in winter keeping to the plains, and in summer seeking pasturage in the mountains. Most of the tribes, however, are so much dispersed, that they have lost that union which alone could render them formidable, and they are even limited in their migrations by the king. Their wealth consists of flocks and herds, and they breed camels and horses for sale. In their small communities they are governed by "Reis-sefids" or elders, the only hereditary nobility in Persia, and their taxes are levied by their chiefs, who transmit them to the central power. Though compelled to do military service, they are exempt from labor on the public works and other burdens. "Speaking, generally, of the Persians," says Sir John Malcolm, "we may describe them as a handsome, active, and robust race of men; of lively imagination, quick apprehension, and agreeable and prepossessing manners. As a nation they may be termed brave, but their vices are still more prominent than their virtues. There being no such thing as a census in Persia, the amount of its population can only be conjectural. The fixed inhabitants are estimated by Mr. Frazer at 7,000,000, and the Iliyats at 2,500,000," or in all, at 9,500,000.

The religion of the Persians is the Mahomedan, but the people of the several provinces profess it in various forms. Jews are met with in all the great towns; Armenians and Nestorians are also to be found, and a few Sabeans, or star worshippers. It has been conjectured that there are between 250,000 and 300,000 professed Suffees or free-thinkers. The clergy consist of several orders, the highest of which is that of Mushteheds, of whom there are seldom more than three or four. Next in rank is the Sheik-ul-Islam, who is the supreme judge of the written law. Besides these, there are in every city, and connected with all seminaries of learning, a crowd of Mollahs, who, like the French abbés of old, live by their wits, and have little of the priestly character but the name, and are generally a licentious multitude. The only remains of the ancient fire-worshippers, or followers of Zoroaster, called Guebres or Infidels by the Moslems, reside principally at Yezd, Kerman, Shiraz, Ispahan, and Kashan, but they are very few in number, there being only about 2,300 families in the whole of Persia.

The Persians received their arts and sciences from Arabia, and still exhibit all the characteristics of their origin. Modern science is to them as yet a dead letter; and although every mosque has its colleges, and schools are thickly distributed over the whole country, nothing approaching to the character of a liberal education is open to the people generally. Great progress has, however, been made in this respect during the last 60 years, and since the commencement of the present century Persian literature has been decidedly on the advance, and a spirit of intellectual refinement is

beginning to influence society. With the exception of the lowest peasantry and paupers, indeed, there is now scarcely a mechanic or laborer who does not send his children to school. The higher branches of education are taught at the universities, which are well spoken of by all as efficient; but the great object constantly kept in view by teachers is the Koran, which is the chief study of the learner, and as a consequence the mind early becomes subjected to its superstitions, and depressed by its doctrines. The introduction of the printing-press, however, has been effected, and must inevitably consummate great changes in all departments, and especially in the education of youth. Ispahan contains the largest and most important university. There is one also at Shiraz, and a third at Meshid. In all of them the Arabic language and literature, and the Mahomedan laws and theology are studied, but each seminary is celebrated for some particular branch or branches of learning. "The system of instruction, the modes of study, and the habits of the students," says Mirza Ibrahim,\* "are excellent. Every college has a superior, who, with assistants, presides over its discipline and manages its property, if it have any. There are no formal degrees conferred, except on the immediate ministers of religion, nor any professorships founded. The lectures are all public, and open to any person who chooses to attend them. Any man may act as a professor and give lectures, but the number of his pupils will of course depend upon his ability. There is no emolument attached to a professorship, nor do the scholars pay for instruction; public fame and honor are the only rewards."

The government is an unmitigated military despotism. The nomadic tribes, however, are ruled immediately by their Khans, whose authority is sometimes very limited. The civil and criminal laws are founded on the Koran, and administered by the Sheik-ul-Islam and his deputies. There is also the "urf," or customary law, administered by secular magistrates, of whom the king is the chief; but the respective powers of the two branches have ever been a matter of dispute. Justice, however, is here, as in all eastern countries, sold to the highest bidder, and the judges seem to consider their subjects as fiefs for their own aggrandizement and amusement. The public revenue is said to amount only to about \$700,000 annually; but other large sums, which are not accounted for, are collected and appropriated by the provincial governors, who form a sort of petty kings, amenable only to the Shahan-shahee, the King of Kings, i. e. the Persian monarch. The army of Persia is small, and consists chiefly of irregular troops taken from the nomadic tribes; and besides the regular and irregular troops, the king has a sort of body guard named "gholams," or slaves, who are Georgian or Circassian captives, intermingled with the sons of the nobility. This body amounts to three or four thousand. They are well mounted and armed, and generally carry a shield on their shoulders. The situation is one of honor as well as contingent emolument. The whole amount of the Persian army has been as high as 100,000 men, with twice the number of camp followers.

Persia is not insignificant in productive industry. Agriculture and the manufactures employ the people, but mining is almost unknown. The great mass are agriculturists, and the nomadic tribes are herdsmen and shepherds. All the Jews and many Armenians are wholly devoted to commerce. Agriculture is followed in many places with industry and

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\* History of Persian Literature by Mirza Ibrahim, of Haileybury College, 1837

intelligence, and in spite of numerous physical obstacles is in a flourishing condition. The people of Iran have a natural talent for the mechanic arts, some of which they have carried to high perfection. They excel particularly in making sabres, in copper and brass work, perfumery, dressing of leather, pottery, silk cloths, carpets, felts, and painted cloths and shawls. Their commerce is principally carried on by land: their maritime trade being almost altogether managed by the English, Arabs, Turks, and Russians. The principal port on the Gulf is Bushire, and on the Caspian Sea Enzillee and Balfrush. Their land trade is carried on by caravans, with Turkestan, Turkey, Russia, India, and China. The principal commercial towns are Tabriz, Kermanshah, Hamadan, Cashan, Ispahan, Shiraz, Balfrush, Mushid, and Nishapore. The exports consist of pearls, silks, horses, camels, skins, copper, leather, gums, drugs, dye-stuffs, &c.; and the imports are indigo, cochineal, coffee, sugar, and all sorts of European merchandize. There are no roads in Persia except only such as have been made by the constant passage of cattle and travellers.

For administrative purposes the kingdom is divided into large provinces, governed by "begherbeghs," or great lords, who have under them "rahims," or governors of districts, and "darogas," or governors of towns: but the limits of these provinces are continually varying, and do not always comprise the territories of the nomadic tribes. Geographers have, therefore, retained the ancient divisions of the country, viz.:

1. KURDISTAN, the capital of which is Senna..	with a population of..	5,000
2. AZERBIJAN,.....	" " Tabriz.....	" " 30,000
3. GHILAN,.....	" " Resht.....	" " 40,000
4. MAZANDERAN,.....	" " Sari.....	" " 40,000
5. ASTRABAD,.....	" " Astrabad.....	" " 15,000
6. KHORASSAN,.....	" " Mushid.....	" " 30,000
7. IRAK-AJEMI,.....	" " Ispahan.....	" " 150,000
8. KHUZISTAN,.....	" " Shuster.....	" " 20,000
9. FARs, OF FARsISTAN,...	" " Shiraz.....	" " 30,000
10. LARISTAN,.....	" " Lar.....	" " 12,000
11. KERMAN,.....	" " Kerman.....	" " 30,000
12. SEISTAN, inhabited by wandering tribes.		

TEHERAN, the capital of the kingdom, stands in a gravelly plain, 3,786 feet above the level of the sea, which is bordered by a high range of mountains. It is four miles in circuit, and fortified with a mud wall, towers, and a wide and deep ditch; but its only important edifice is the ark, a fortified palace or citadel. The population varies with the season, from 10 to 60,000. About 10 or 12 miles south-west of the city are the extensive, but almost obliterated remains of "Rhe or Rhages," a contemporary of Nineveh and Echatana, the capital of the Parthian kings, and the birth-place of the great Khalif Haroun-al-Raschid.

ISPAHAN, the ancient capital, formerly a very large and splendid city, with one million inhabitants, is now in ruins. It stands on a plain, 4,140 feet above the sea, upon the banks of the Zeinde-râd, which is crossed by three fine bridges, and is surrounded by a mud-wall 24 miles in circuit. Nothing can exceed the beauty of the surrounding valley, and the first view of the city is still imposing. A nearer view, however, dispels the illusion, though much still remains of wealth, if not of splendor. Ispahan has yet considerable trade, and a population of 150,000. On the south side of the river are the suburbs of Isfahanuk, or Little Ispahan, and Julfa.

TABRIZ, the chief town of Azerbaijan, is a great centre of commerce, with a large but very fluctuating population. It is about 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, and is bordered on three sides with mountains, while on the fourth side the plain extends, without interruption, to Lake Ooroomiah, which is distant about 30 miles. The city is about four miles in circuit, and is surrounded by a brick wall; and the citadel, a high and massive structure of brick-work, is visible from a distance, rising above the broad screen of gardens, which mask the approach to the city, and which being cultivated with great care, yield every kind of fruit in the utmost perfection and abundance. URMI, (corrupted from Rhûmia, Urûmiah, or Ooroomiah,) the birth-place of Zoroaster, the founder of the ancient Magian religion, is now a well-fortified town, of 20,000 inhabitants, 12 miles west from the great lake.

The other principal towns of the kingdom are :—KHOI, one of the finest in Persia, with 30,000 inhabitants; RESHT, a busy trading town; BALFRUSH, formerly a flourishing commercial town of 300,000 inhabitants; ASTRABAD, the capital of the province of the same name; HERAT, the emporium of the trade between Persia and India; KERMANSHAH, celebrated for its carpets; KASHAN, famous for its silks and cotton manufactures; SHIRAZ, the capital of Fars, renowned for its wines; LAR, noted for the finest bazaar in all Persia; and KERMAN, whose wool is so celebrated, and whose shawls, felts and matchlocks are in request all over the East. These towns have generally from 20,000 to 50,000 inhabitants, and there are hundreds of others having populations from 10,000 to 20,000, some of which have a local celebrity; but our space precludes a further notice.

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## A F F G H A N I S T A N .

AFFGHANISTAN, the most eastern portion of Persia, is bounded on the north by the ridges of the Himalaya and Hindoo-koh mountains; on the east by the Indus; on the south by the northern frontier of Beloochistan, and on the west by the eastern border of Iran. From west to east it measures 630 miles, and from north to south 450, and contains an area of 240,000 square miles.

The country consists of a succession of lofty valleys and table-lands, separated and supported by immense mountain chains. The spurs of the Hindoo-koh and other mountains occupy the north, decreasing in elevation towards the south. The sides of these mountains are well wooded, and the valleys are rich in vegetation, and even the rocks are rendered beautiful from the rich verdure of the mosses which cover them. This region is called Kohistan or hill country. All the valleys of the range open ultimately into the great valley of the Cabul river, which extends east and west about 200 miles, and carries their waters to the Indus. The whole eastern portion is also a congeries of lower hills, which descend westward in a rapid slope. The elevation of these is considerable, but the Suffeid-koh is the only peak which retains snow throughout the year. The eastern portions of the country consist of elevated plains, rich in all the products of the climate; but in the south the Desert of Seistan occupies no inconsiderable amount of territory, and here all is bare and sterile and unfit for the residence of man.

The climate is as various as the elevations. In the eastern valleys the heat is sometimes as great as in the hottest parts of India, but it does not

continue so long, and the colds of winter are much greater. The heat of the west is more moderate. The low parts are hot, the middle, temperate, and the high, cold; but speaking generally, the average of heat does not reach that of India, nor is the cold so severe as in Europe in the same latitudes. Periodical rains occur in the north and east, but are less marked in the west, but occasionally the whole country suffers from the monsoon, and in winter the northern regions are often rendered impassable from accumulated snow. The prevailing winds are from the west.

Gold does not seem to be found in Affghanistan, except in the streams which flow from the Hindoo-koh. Silver is found in small quantities, and whole cliffs of lapis-lazuli overhang the river of Kashgar. There are also lead, antimony, iron, sulphur, rock-salt and alum. Saltpetre is made everywhere from the soil. The mountains around Cabul are especially rich in minerals, and the sand of the Kerman is washed for gold.

The most common species of trees on the mountains are pines, oaks, cedars and cypresses, also walnuts, wild olives, wild grapes, &c. In the plains are the mulberry, the tamarask, the willow, plane and poplar. The gardens are profuse in roses, jessamines, poppies, hyacinths, and an innumerable catalogue of indigenous and foreign fruits and flowers.

Lions, tigers and leopards are found in several districts, and wolves, hyænas, jackals, foxes and hares are common everywhere. Bears are found in all the wooded mountains; wild boars are now rare, and wild asses appear to be confined to the sandy country to the south of Candahar. Elks and deer are found in all the mountains, but antelopes are found only in the plains. The wild sheep and goats inhabit the eastern hills, which contain also porcupines, hedgehogs and monkeys, ferrets and wild dogs.

The principal domestic animals are horses, ponies, mules, camels, buffaloes and humped-backed bees. The great stock of the pastoral tribes consists of sheep. Of birds there are eagles, falcons, herons, cranes, storks, wild fowl and game in plenty, and a great variety of the smaller species of singing birds. The snakes are generally harmless, but scorpions of great size and venom exist in some districts. Flights of locusts are not of unfrequent occurrence. Bees are common; and mosquitoes, which are however, less troublesome than in India.

The term Affghan is not known to the natives. The name they give to their nation is "Pushtun." They consider themselves to be descended from Affghan, the son of Irmia or Berkia, a son of Saul, king of Israel. They call themselves accordingly "Beni-Israel," though they consider the term "Yahudee" or Jew, as one of reproach. They say they were transported by Nebuchadnezzar, and continued to observe the Jewish ritual until the first century of the hedjira, when they were converted to Islam. They have the appearance of Jews, and by some are in reality considered to be a part of the lost tribes.

They are divided into small tribes, and their chiefs or khans are elected by the people of each. The internal government is conducted by these khans, and assemblies of the heads of divisions called "jirgas." The khan presides in the principal jirga, which is composed of the chiefs of the great branches of the tribes. Each of these presides in the jirga of his own division, which is formed in a similar manner of the chiefs of the subdivisions, who again hold their jirgas. This system of government, however, is so often deranged by circumstances, that it is seldom found in full operation, and must, therefore, be considered rather as the model than a correct de-

scription of any one of them. The khan, though supreme, is not looked upon as a master but as a father, who has the welfare of his children in view, and is consequently secure only in the affections of his people. Accordingly the power of life or death is rarely possessed by a khan, and it is seldom that his personal interests would lead a tribe to take any step inconsistent with its own honor or advantage. An assemblage of many such commonwealths compose the Affghan nation. Each tribe possesses its own territory and exercises its own local powers, but there is sufficient affinity and national sympathy among the several tribes to keep the whole in a sort of unity and position of common defence.

The northern parts of Affghanistan are occupied by the "Hazarehs" or Huzaras, a simple people, who differ much from the Affghans, and in some respects resemble the Chinese. They are quite independent since the subversion of the kingdom of Cabul, owing their safety to the natural strength of their mountain country. They are mostly a pastoral people, and their subsistence depends chiefly on the produce of their flocks.

There cannot be said to exist such a thing as national industry. The people from necessity engage in such pursuits as afford them the necessaries of life, and raise crops and herds; but little in the nature of manufactures is undertaken. In this respect they are far behind their neighbors on all sides. Perhaps this may be in a great measure owing to the constant revolution and force that has harrassed the country; but there is no doubt that it equally originates in the constitution of the people themselves, who are little removed from the savage in their modes of life. Their form of government, however, must have a beneficent effect on their condition; and now that their ambitious despoilers have successfully destroyed each other, the popular principles which everywhere guide their rulers may develop the wealth and resources of the country, and make them a thriving and happy people. The whole population is said to amount to about 8,000,000.

CABUL, the principal city, is situated in a plain 1,000 feet above the level of the adjacent country. It is surrounded by a lofty wall of towers and curtains and a broad ditch, and with one exception of a suburb, stands all on the right bank of the river. The houses are built of sun-dried brick and wood, but few of them are more than two stories high. The great bazaar is an elegant arcade nearly 600 feet long and 30 broad. There are few such bazaars in the east, and wonder is excited by the silks, cloths and goods arranged along the sides, and at the quantity of dried fruits piled up in endless profusion. Each trade has its separate bazaar. The population amounts to about 60,000, who all converse in the Persian as their mother tongue; but the Paishtoo or Affghan language is spoken in the neighboring villages. The city suffered greatly from the British in 1842.

CANDAHAR is another fine city with an equal population. It is considered as the western capitol, and is surrounded by a brick wall. The streets, lined with houses of sun-dried brick, start from each of the four principal gates, and meet in the centre of the city under the vast dome of a circular bazaar filled with shops, and crowded with people from morning to night. The mosques are neither numerous nor splendid. Candahar is the centre of a great trade between India and Persia. It is supposed to be one of the Alexandrias, built by Alexander the Great; but the present city is quite modern, and the ruins of the older city are about three miles to the westward.

GHUZNEE, the capital of a powerful kingdom in the 12th century, is now completely in ruins; there is a new town of small extent on its site, but of little consideration.

PESHAWER is a large town east of Cabul, upwards of 5 miles in circuit, but the environs exhibit little else than a vast space covered with ruins and tombs. It has the appearance, indeed, of a very ordinary Hindoo town, but contains about 105,000 inhabitants, consisting of Affghans, Cashmerians, and Hindoos.

There are some other towns, but generally they are unimportant. Jellalabad, Kohat, Mittun, &c., are those best known. Baumeean, in a valley to the north of the Hindoo-koh, is a singular place, and is celebrated for its colossal idols and innumerable excavations, which are found in all parts of the valley in which it is situated, the latter of which still form the houses of the inhabitants. Altogether they form a large city, but none of them have any pretensions to architectural beauty. Baumeean appears to be a place of great antiquity.

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## BELOOCHISTAN.

THIS, the remaining portion of Persia, lies between Affghanistan and the Indian Ocean, extending along the latter almost 600 miles, and comprising altogether an area of 180,000 square miles.

The greater part of the country is mountainous, and especially so in the east and west divisions, which consist of two elevated table-lands. A large portion of it is entirely desert, being a continuation of the desert of Kerman, and the seacoast is covered by flat, barren sands, which are destitute of water, and produce no other vegetation than date-trees.

Little is known of the geology of the country; but gold, silver, and some other metals, with sulphur, naptha, and rock salt, are found in different places. The climate is generally healthy, and the vegetable products diverse and luxuriant. The wild animals are much the same as those of the countries of Persia already described, and industry is not on a higher level.

The people are almost equally divided into two distinct nations—the Belooches, who are found in the west, and the Brahoes, who occupy the east. The “Belooches” are almost entirely a rude, nomadic, and pastoral people, living in tents, and moving from place to place with their flocks and herds. Their language is a corrupt dialect of the Persian, but they attribute their origin to the Arabs. The “Brahoes” inhabit chiefly the district of Kelat, and are inferior in personal appearance to the Belooches: they are more unsettled in their habits, but bear a better character with travellers. A people called “Gewahrs,” probably of Gheber descent, are found in different places, and speak Persian. The Hindoos monopolize most of the trade of the Eastern provinces.

KELAT is the chief city, and the residence of a Khan who claims sovereignty over the whole country, but whose authority extends little further than the precincts of his own town. It has a population of about 25,000. There are some other towns named on the maps, but they are inconsiderable, and their population fluctuating. Their names are Gundava, Punjgoor, Bayla, Lydree, Khoola, Choubar, Bunpoor, and some few others.



## INDIA, OR HINDOOSTAN.

THE natural boundaries of India are remarkably well defined. The whole northern boundary is formed by the Himalayas; and the whole southern portion is circumscribed by the Indian Ocean. It lies between  $7^{\circ}$  and  $35^{\circ}$  N. latitude, and  $67^{\circ}$  and  $97^{\circ}$  E. longitude. In length 1870 miles, and in extreme breadth about 1800 miles, it contains an area of 1,250,000 square miles, with a sea-coast line of 3,622 miles.

The northern parts of India are covered by the gigantic ranges of the Himalayas; and for many miles southward their ramifications divide the country into a succession of lofty mountains and deep valleys, which are watered by mountain torrents, and generally inhabited. The vegetable productions of this region are of the most remarkable stateliness, variety, and beauty. Except at the summits of the mountains the trees are very large; and everywhere, and at all seasons, the ground is covered with a profusion of flowers. In this region the great rivers of India, the Ganges and the Indus, with their tributaries, have their rise.

To the south of these mountainous and hilly regions, the great plains of Hindoostan extend over thousands of miles. Between the basin of the Indus or Sinde, which has been called "Sindetic India," and the basin of the Ganges, called "Gangetic India," is a series of ridges called "Aravulli," which extend south-west and north-east about 300 miles, with a breadth varying from six to sixty miles, and a general elevation of 3,600 feet. Further south the "Vindhya Mountains" extend east and west about 350 miles, and terminate eastward in a hilly region, which covers a large portion of Central India, forming a number of table-lands and valleys of considerable extent.

The southern part of India forms a large triangular peninsula projected into the Indian ocean about 900 miles further than the coasts of the Gangetic or Sindetic plains. Along the western coast the Ghauts, a lofty range of mountains, extends from near the mouth of the Tuptee river to the valley of the Coimbatore, where they terminate with the Nilgherries, which are the highest ridges in the peninsula. The Ghauts rise very abruptly at the distance of about thirty miles from the coast, forming on their eastern side a table-land of about 2,000 feet above the level of the sea, rather undulating than flat, and covered with numberless smaller ranges, sloping eastward in terraces to the Bay of Bengal, into which their waters descend. On the eastern side a similar chain, the "Eastern Ghauts," extends along the borders of the Lower Carnatic and the Northern Circars, but at a greater distance from the sea than the western range, and is intersected in several places by the rivers which flow from the table-land. To the south of the Nilgherries, which form as it were the terminating nucleus of both ranges, the valley of the river Paniany forms a gap of sixteen miles wide; and beyond it rises a group of mountains clothed with stupendous forests, and intersected by lovely valleys, which extends southward nearly 200 miles, and may be considered as a continuation of the Ghauts. Between the western Ghauts and the sea there is but a narrow strip of land, and the precipitate sides of the mountains that rise above it are generally covered with forests of the tallest trees, and with impenetrable jungle. The low-land along the eastern coast is a broad, though unequal belt of country,

many parts of which consist of alluvial plains, formed by the deposits of numerous rivers, which flow from the table-lands of the interior. In the sea these deposits are so distributed as to form a shelving bank, upwards of one hundred miles in breadth along the coasts, which slopes so regularly, that the number of fathoms of water is a certain indication of the distance from land.

The most remarkable region, however, is the Great Desert, which may be said to extend from the eastern base of the Hala Mountains to the western base of the Aravulli, a distance of 350 miles, and comprising an area of 150,000 square miles. This desert is traversed in its western portion by the Indus, and in its eastern by the Loonee; but except along the banks of these rivers, and within the reach of artificial irrigation, it admits of cultivation only in a few places, and immediately after the rains. Otherwise it is a continual succession of sand-hills and level plains, and almost bare of any vegetative feature. The surface has no covering of turf, nor any closely contiguous roots, but there are various kinds of plants whose leaves and fruit are fit for food. Travelling through such a tract is difficult, and camels seem to be the only eligible beasts of burden over its sandy wastes. Many large portions of it present the features of real solitude and desolation: but there are also numerous oases where herdsmen pasture their flocks, and on the lines of travel wells have been dug at intervals. The desert is called by the natives Thull, Thur, or Dhat; but in Hindoo geography it is called Maroosthulli, or the Region of Death. Of the whole region of India, it is reckoned that one third is covered with jungle or waste.

The rivers of India are a distinguished feature in its topography. The Indus, which forms the western boundary, is a magnificent river, and receives, in its course southward, the waters of the Sutlej, the Chenab, the Ghara, and many others. It is navigable for steam-ships to Moulton, and many others of its tributaries form navigable streams of great volume. The Ganges is reckoned the principal river of India, and flows in an eastern direction from its sources in the Himalayas. Its principal tributaries are the Jumna, the Chumbul, Sinde, Betwa, Cane, Baugy, &c. The Bramaputra is also a noble river, eastward of the Ganges, emptying itself, with that river, into the Bay of Bengal. The Nerbuddah and Tuptee empty into the Arabian Gulf, and the Mahanuddy, the Godavery, Kistna, and some others, into the Indian Ocean, on the east side of the peninsula.

The geological formation of the rocks is everywhere very simple, and a great uniformity prevails throughout the whole country, from Cape Comorin to the Ganges. Primitive formations stretch, with few interruptions, from Cape Comorin to beyond Nagpoor and Ellichpoor. They are also met with in many places still further north, and occupy altogether about three-fourths of central and peninsular India. Primitive rocks also form the main body or nucleus of the Himalayas; and some of the highest peaks seem to be formed of granite. The flanks of the sub-Himalayas are covered with beds of concrete sand-stone, conglomerate, and loam. Between the Jumna and Ganges these hills rise from 1,000 to 4,500 feet, and in their deposits are found immense quantities of fossil teeth and bones of the elephant, mastadon, hippopotamus, rhinoceros, elk, ox, horse, deer, and other animals, with the remains of shells and fishes. The remains of extinct species of the monkey and camel have also been found. The great plains of Gangetic and Sindetic India are almost entirely composed of alluvial deposits, which are in many places, as in Bengal, many hundreds of feet thick. The Great

Desert lies on a great bed of sand-stone. Enormous beds of trap-rock and basalt have been traced all over the Malwah, southward to Nagpore and the western confines of Hyderabad, thence to the sea near Bankote, and northward to the Gulf of Cambay, covering an area of more than 200,000 square miles, and contributing very materially, by their detrition, to the amazing fertility of that part of India.

Among the mineral productions of India coal holds a first place, not only on account of its value, but also in consideration of its extensive formations. It is found chiefly in the neighborhood of Bengal, and may be traced through all the low countries of the coasts of the Circars and Aracan. Several quarries of fine marble have also been discovered, and salt is procured, both in a fossil state and from evaporating the waters of several lakes. In many parts the marshes, in the dry season, are covered with an efflorescence, which consists principally of carbonate, sulphate and chloride of soda. The inhabitants call it "reh," and use it for making soap. Iron is found in the Carnatic, and is wrought with great skill, and to a considerable extent. Gold and silver have been found in Mysore; and particles of gold occur in the beds and at the mouths of the rivers of Southern Malabar. Tin and copper have also been found. Diamond mines are wrought in the district of Punah in Bundelcund, in a matrix formed of conglomerate with quartzose pebbles; also at Heera-Khoond, eight miles from Sumbulpoor; and diamonds were also formerly found in the Neela-mulla Mountains, between the Kistna and Pennair rivers, in the extinct kingdom of Golconda. Rubies, chrysolites, garnets, amethysts, cats-eyes, and many kinds of cornelian, jasper, and agate; rock-crystal, and beautiful feldspars, are likewise found in many places. Talc is found in great abundance in the Mahabaleshwar Hills, where it is used instead of glass.

The soil varies with the geological character of the country. In the deltas of the rivers it consists of a rich alluvium, and in the countries overlaid by the great trap formation, a stiff clay and tenacious surface, which is highly fertile when irrigated, prevails. In many parts a deep dark mould is found; but so various is the character and quality of the soil, that it may be said that India has every description known to the geologist and agriculturist.

The climate of India is characterized by extreme heat; but in this respect it must be much modified by circumstances. The greater part of the country is situated between the tropics, and is generally subject to the laws regulating tropical climates. The year is divided into the wet and dry seasons; but owing to the abrupt elevations of portions of its surface, this country exhibits varieties of climate, corresponding in temperature to those which are met with through every degree of latitude, from the equator to the poles, so that while the plains are burnt up by intolerable heat, some of the mountains that overlook them are crowned with everlasting snows. Between these extremes the climate is delightful, and in variety and luxuriant productions few regions equal the hill countries of India. The highest degree of temperature is found in the sandy districts on the level of the sea, as in the northern Circars and the Carnatic. Frost is never felt in the Deccan, but the temperature of Hyderabad is sometimes only 6° or 8° above the freezing point. In Central India the range of the thermometer is unusually small, seldom ranging more than ten degrees the year round. The most remarkable peculiarity, however, of the Indian climate is, the periodical changes of the wind, which blows alternately for nearly half the year in opposite direc-

tions. These are termed monsoons, but their effects are mostly felt in the southern peninsula. On the Malabar coast the south-west monsoon commences about the middle of April and continues till August or September, when it gradually loses its character, and is succeeded by light variable winds. Towards the end of October the north-east monsoon sets in, and continues till April. During the presence of the south-west monsoon the coast of Malabar is deluged with rain, which decreases in quantity from the coast inland and northward. In Mysore the rains are not more than sufficient to preserve the verdure. The rainy season on the Coromandal coast commences with the north-east monsoon, about the middle of October; but the rains are not nearly so violent as on the south-west coast, and continue only about two months. On both coasts the setting in of the monsoon is generally accompanied by violent hurricanes; but storms and sudden rains are more frequent and violent on the west coast. The east coast, on the other hand, experiences more violent heat and a longer continuance of drought. The general hotness of India and the insalubrious character of the rainy season produces not only discomfort, but is highly injurious to the human constitution; and foreigners are ever liable to fevers, dysenteries, diseases of the liver, and other complaints peculiar to the East. The marshes of the Ganges, indeed, seem to be the original seat of the Cholera Asiatica, and from hence it spreads its pestilential breath to the furthest limits of the world.

The more important of the vegetable productions of India are cotton, indigo, sugar-cane, cajepout oil, caoutchouc, rice, wheat, barley, pepper, ginseng, sandalwood, spikenard, and gigantic bamboos and palms. The chief rice country is Bengal, which produces a surplus for exportation; but rice of superior quality is also grown in smaller quantities elsewhere, particularly in the western provinces. The Madras territory does not produce enough for home consumption; but cultivation is extending, and the inferior kinds of grain are giving place to rice. The wheat grown in the northern and western provinces is of excellent quality, so as to be preferred, even in England, for various purposes. The barley of the north-western provinces is also good, and the Hindoos of the Himalayas distil from it a spirit which is not inferior to Irish whiskey. Potatoes having been introduced into every part of India, the cultivation of them is extending rapidly; and they are much liked by the natives. In the eastern and southern provinces the fruits are principally tropical; but in the hill countries of the north-western provinces, apples, pears, grapes, walnuts, strawberries, raspberries, and other fruits peculiar to temperate climates, are now reared in abundance. The grapes of Malwah have long been celebrated; those of Kunnawar are of great variety, and are produced in sufficient abundance, if properly managed, to supply the whole of India with wine. Culinary vegetables now crowd the bazaars.

The sugar-cane grows luxuriantly in most places; but the manufacture of sugar is chiefly confined to Bengal and Benares. The coffee of the southern districts of the peninsula is excellent and abundant; that of Malabar is of so superior a quality as to be taken to Arabia, and re-exported as Mocha coffee; but the coffee of Tinnevely brings the highest price in the markets. Tobacco grows everywhere luxuriantly, and in many parts has an excellent aroma. Indigo is cultivated extensively in Bengal, Bahar, Oude, Allahabad, and Agra. Cotton, both of the creeper perennial and of the forest tree, everywhere abounds; but, owing to improper or defective

management, the quality of the material is not equal to that of North America. The East India Company, however, are now taking measures to introduce a proper system of cultivating this important plant, and no doubt is entertained that ere long it will be produced in abundance and of the first quality. Malwah and the north-western provinces seem particularly adapted for its cultivation. Hemp of the strongest quality is grown on the northern hills; and the experiment of growing flax on a large scale has been made in the district of Monghir.

Opium is produced in great quantities at Malwah, and the neighborhood of Patna, and forms a principal article of export in the trade with China. Roses are cultivated to an immense extent at Ghazeepore and elsewhere, and are used for making rosewater (a sovereign remedy for all diseases with the natives,) and otto or attar, of which only the weight of a rupee is produced from 200,000 bulbs. Along the coasts of the Bay of Bengal, the cocoa and areca nut palms flourish abundantly; of dyes, medicinal drugs, resins, gums, and oils, there are great varieties.

Timber of all kinds is everywhere abundant; the forests are numerous and magnificent, and cover a large portion of the country. The maritime provinces produce teak, ebony, and many other species of trees; the interior produces the saul, sissor, bamboos, and rattans, with a great variety of plants which yield excellent materials for cordage. The northern and hill provinces yield at one season European grains, and at another those that are peculiar to the tropics. On the Himalayas, tropical trees entirely disappear at the height of 4,000 or 5,000 feet; the middle region, between 5,000 and 9,000, produces oaks, sycamores, elms, hornbeams, pines, barberries, roses, and honeysuckles, all of Indian species, but of European forms; and numerous saxifrages, crowfoots, geraniums, violets, gentians, primroses, and labiate plants. It is this belt also which produces the scarlet rhododendron; and, on its lower edge, are found those camellias and tea-like plants which render it probable that the tea-plant itself might be cultivated in this part of India. The third and upper belt extends to an elevation unknown in any other part of the world. Trees of rhododendron and *quercus lanata* are first met with; to these succeed pines and various kinds of firs, some of which are splendid, at the height of 11,000 or 11,500 feet; oaks in great variety; yews, birches, sycamores, and poplars, with roses, viburnums, and honeysuckles; above which follow patches of snow, with the Himalayan bamboo creeping along the ground. To these succeed forests of *quercus semicarpifolia*; and the limits of vegetation are finely marked by a few starved yews and junipers, with primroses in the warmer situations, dwarf species of rhododendron, heather, and willow.

The agriculture of this region is as singular as the vegetation; wheat is sometimes cultivated on the top of a mountain, and rice, at its foot; maize, millet, and other small grains constitute the rain crop; capsicums, turmeric, and ginger, are grown as high as 4,000 feet; wheat is cultivated as high as 10,000 feet, or even, according to Captain Webb, to the height of 12,000 feet. Cotton succeeds even at Kumaon. At Saharunpore, 30° N. latitude, 77° 32' E. longitude, 1,000 miles from the sea, and 1,000 feet above its level, the East India Company have established a botanic garden, where are collected in one place, and naturalized in the open air, the various fruit and other trees of very different countries, as those of India, China, Cabul, Europe, and America. But the most remarkable vegetable production of India is the banyan tree, (*ficus Indica*,) the branches of which send out shoots, which fall to the ground and fix themselves there, becoming in time

large trunks, and forming a grove around the parent stem. A famous banyan tree has been often mentioned as growing on an island in the Nerbuddah; and one in Mysore is said to cover an area of 100 yards in diameter.

India produces many of the most interesting forms of animal life. The elephant ranges wild in the deep forests and jungles of the eastern and southern provinces, and is domesticated throughout the peninsula, where it is still used to swell the gorgeous parade of the court, and to form the humblest of drudges. Wild elephants are particularly numerous in Assam, where they move about in large herds; and from 700 to 1,000 are yearly exported from that province. Its huge rival, the rhinoceros, is also found in the thickest parts of the forests of Bengal, but has never been trained to any useful employment. The camel abounds in the sandy regions of the north-west, where it is used as the ordinary beast of burden. Deer, of many species and varieties, are found among the mountains and forests; also antelopes, wild boars, hyænas, jackals, foxes, hares, squirrels, porcupines, hedgehogs, and monkeys, the last being met with in great variety, and multiplied to a vast extent through the superstition of the Hindoos, who consider them as sacred animals. Bears abound in all the wooded mountains; wolves are also numerous in the northern provinces. The wild dogs of the Himalayas are remarkable animals, in form and color like a fox, though larger; they hunt in packs, give tongue like dogs, have a very fine scent, and by force of numbers they are said at times to destroy the tiger. The buffalo, both wild and tame, is indigenous; one species, the *bos-arnée*, is noted for its great size and strength; the *yak*, or Tartar ox, is numerous among the Himalayas, where they browse in herds among ice and snow, and constitute, next to corn, the chief wealth of the inhabitants; there are also several species or varieties of beeves, the most common of which is the sacred humped species. The native horse of India is a small, ill-shaped, vicious poney; but fine horses in great numbers are imported from Arabia and Turkestan, and are bred in the studs. The sandy deserts of Western India are the haunt of the wild ass, which roams in herds along the borders of the Runn of Cutch. In Southern India asses of several varieties are tamed for domestic purposes. The rat tribe abound; one species is of enormous size and very mischievous; some of the smaller species are also very destructive. The musk rat is only about the size of a mouse; and yet when it passes through a room it fills it with a strong perfume, and whatever it passes over becomes impregnated with the taste and the smell of musk.

The goat of Cashmere has long been celebrated for its fine wool; and there are also other varieties of the goat. In the country of the shawl-goats some sheep's wool of a very fine quality is also produced, and no mutton is finer than that of the grain-feed sheep of the plains of India; but the native sheep are covered with hair instead of wool. Great attention has, however, of late, been paid to the introduction of improved breeds of sheep; the most decisive results have been obtained, and, from the active measures taken to improve the fleeces, in the extensive pastoral country of the Deccan, the export trade in wool promises to be one of the most valuable and important.

But, of all the animals of India, those of the feline tribe are the most remarkable, as well for their beauty as for their size, strength, and fierceness. The lion is found chiefly in the northern provinces, near the borders of the plains; but the tiger abounds in all the forests and jungles throughout the country, even up to the glaciers of the Himalayas, and is the grand

object of pursuit with sportsmen. Leopards, ounces, and panthers, of different varieties, are also numerous; one species of leopard, the chittah or cheetah, is employed for hunting wild deer. The ox and cow are treated with great veneration, and are even worshipped; and cow dung is used by the Hindoos to adorn their persons.

The birds of India are, in many cases, both splendid and curious. Those of the parrot tribe are the most remarkable for beauty, and for the variety of species; eagles are numerous among the Himalayas, also vultures, hawks, and falcons; many other birds are common, as herons, cranes, storks, flamingoes, pea-fowl, pheasants, geese, swans, partridges, quails, pigeons, gulls, plovers, wild ducks, and the common domestic fowls; the jungle-cock of India is believed to be the original parent of the common cocks and hens of Europe.

Reptiles are numerous; serpents swarm in the gardens, and even intrude into the houses; some are comparatively harmless, but of others the bite is speedily fatal. Water snakes are so particularly numerous along the coasts, that seamen used to ascertain their approach to land by the appearance of those animals. Alligators abound in the rivers and tanks, and particularly among the creeks of the Sunderbunds, along with a great variety of amphibious animals and fishes; the shark infests the mouths of the rivers, as well as the sea-coast, and grows to an enormous size. The best and most highly flavoured fish is the mango, which appears in the Lower Ganges in June, and is reckoned a delicacy. Mullet is plentiful in all the rivers, and there are also many other kinds of fish which we cannot attempt even to enumerate. The natives are dexterous fishers. Oysters abound on the coast of Chittagong.

The insect tribes may be said to be innumerable. The heat and moisture of the climate give incredible activity to swarms of noxious and troublesome insects, and to others of a more showy class, whose large wings surpass in brilliancy the most splendid colours of art. Mosquitoes, moths, and ants of the most destructive kind, everywhere abound, to the intolerable annoyance of both Europeans and natives. The white ants destroy every sort of animal or vegetable substance, and the natives allege that they can even eat rupees! Clouds of locusts are also occasionally seen in the northern provinces. Among useful insects, is the silk-worm, the produce of which has long formed an article of commerce from India: the indigenous species are numerous; others have been introduced from China and Italy; and the greatest attention is now paid to the rearing and training of the worms, and to the preparation of the silk, the quantity and value of which are yearly increasing.

The diversity of character and language, of physiognomy, manners, customs, and occupations among the natives of India, is extraordinary. The country contains at least thirty nations, speaking as many distinct languages, and of each of these there are innumerable dialects. The population of India in fact is very heterogeneous, but it is supposed that the whole race is of Caucasian origin, and in reality the Hindoo has many characteristics which ally him to that great family. There is, however, much diversity in the several nations, both in relation to form and complexion. Among the northern mountaineers there are found men of gigantic proportions, but in general the inhabitants of the plain are of shorter stature, and more slender of limb. They are, however, all of an agile, graceful figure, and capable of bearing great fatigue. Few deformed persons are seen, but blindness is

common. The complexion varies from a dark olive, approaching black, to a light, transparent, beautiful brown, with still an olive tinge like that of the natives of northern Italy and Provence, nor does this variety of color seem to depend entirely on climate. Their face is oval; the forehead moderately large and high; the eyes and hair black; the eyebrows finely turned; and the nose and mouth have an European cast. The women are often very beautiful, and their countenances expressive of every luxuriance of sense and intellect.

The most extraordinary peculiarity of the Hindoos is their divisions into "castes," or perfectly distinct orders of society, which have existed from the most remote periods, each of which has its peculiar privileges, duties, and laws, and it is strictly enjoined by the Hindoo religion that no transition from one to the other shall take place. The distinction is complete in every sense, hereditary and personal; all the privileges or disabilities are inherited, and individuals forever remain what their birth condemns them to be.

The "Brahmins," the first or most noble caste, occupy the high stations. They are the priests, scholars, teachers, lawyers, and state officers, and are required to be virtuous, learned, peaceable, just, and self-denying. The second order is the "Kshatryas," who are chiefs and warriors, and they are required to have a thirst for glory, to die rather than retreat, and to be generous to their captives. They preserve the ancient names of rajapoots, by way of distinction, in their old hereditary dominions. The "Vaisayas" or the merchants, and husbandmen constitute the third, and the "Sudras" or laborers the fourth class. The latter are enjoined to serve with patience and fidelity. The slightest digression from the laws of any of these subjects the accused to loss of caste, and sometimes to death. In the first case he henceforth becomes a "Pariah," and as such is obliged to do whatever no one else can do without pollution. The Pariahs, indeed, are not only reckoned unclean themselves, but they render unclean everything they touch. They are deprived of all civil privileges, and stigmatized by particular laws, regulating their mode of life, their houses and their furniture. They are not allowed to enter the temples of the other orders, but must worship by themselves, and their houses are miserable hovels, distant from cities and villages. This rigorous classification of the Hindoos undoubtedly presents many obstacles to the improvement of the lower classes, as well as to the advancement of Christianity in India. The Hindoo, indeed, who becomes a Christian, loses his caste, and it therefore requires an extraordinary strength of mind to make a profession of faith in the Gospel; for by losing his caste, in this or any other way, no one will speak to him, or have any intercourse with him—his own wife and family will disown him—he becomes a Pariah, a dog. The influence of the European population, however, has greatly modified the despotism of ancient customs; and it is not improbable that by continued efforts a thorough revolution may be effected in every department of Hindoo policy and prejudice.

Besides the Hindoos, who profess the Brahminical religion, there are in India multitudes of people, and numerous tribes, differing from each other in origin, religion, and habits of life. Even a catalogue of these would occupy more space than we can allow. The principal tribes are, the Mahrattas, the Parsees, the Seikhs, the Thugs, &c. The "Mahrattas," a numerous and powerful race, who originally occupied the north-western part of the Deccan, rose to distinction in the 17th century, and during the 18th were possessed of a great part of northern and central India.



They have now completely yielded to the British power, but were long its most inveterate enemies; and became celebrated through a long succession of fights with the Indian army. The Mahrattas are generally of a diminutive stature, ill-formed, and of a mean and rapacious disposition. Their language is wide-spread, extending from Beder, over the whole country, to the north-west of Canara. The "Parsees" are fire-worshippers, and of Persian origin. They are settled at Gujrat and Bombay, and number about 50,000. They are generally rich and industrious as merchants and mechanics. The Parsees are divided into two classes—the "mobed," or priests, and "bedeen," or laity; the former of which are distinguished by wearing a white turban. They neither bury nor burn their dead, but leave them in large, open buildings, to be consumed by the elements or the birds. The greatest part of the wealth of Bombay is in the hands of Parsee merchants, and in general they have assimilated the manners of Europe more than their Hindoo or Mahomedan neighbors. Their sacred books are written in the Zend and Pehlevi languages. The "Seikhs, or Sikhs," constitute a religious community, which after the downfall of the Mogul Empire rose to great political power, and for a long time possessed the whole of the Punjab, and some adjacent territories, but have been recently driven beyond the Sutlej by the British. They are a robust and athletic race, with sinewy limbs and of tall stature. The genuine Sikhs know no occupation but agriculture and war. The "Thugs, or Phansygars," are a singular class of professional murderers. They do not, however, form a distinct tribe or sect, but rather a confederacy of Hindoo and Moslem renegades. They are influenced by peculiar religious doctrines, and never shed blood, but strangle their victims. They are generally found in Central India; but the efforts of the British to extirpate them have been partially successful, and as a class they are nearly extinct. The "Coolies, or Kohlies," are a class of men that have of late years commanded attention, from their being removed to the British West Indies as laborers. They are a very troublesome people in their own country, where they inhabit the wilds and jungles of Gujrat, and were formerly much addicted to robbery. The policy of their removal has been questioned, and evil results are foreseen by those opposed to the system, but in this place it is not necessary to pursue the subject. Armenians, Jews, and a number of Moslem tribes are located in different parts. The two first are generally found in the cities; while the last, numbering as a class about 15,000,000 of souls, are spread over the greater part of India. The principal Moslem princes are the family of the Great Mogul, or Emperor of Delhi; the King of Oude; the Nizam, or King of Hydrabad; the Nabob of Arcot; the Nabob of Bhopal; and Bhawal Khan. The Gipsies of India, called "Bazighurs," are generally Mahomedans, and are found principally in the north. They are pretty numerous, and are identically the same people as those found in Europe. The Banyans, the Bheels, the Budkuks, the Garrows, the Rajpoots, the Rohillas, &c., &c., also form distinguished and interesting tribes in the several parts of Hindoostan.

The Europeans of India consist chiefly of natives of Britain, French, Danes, and Portuguese, with their descendants. The East Indians, called also Anglo-Indians, Indo-Britons, &c., are the offspring of European fathers by native mothers, and are, as a class, constantly on the increase. They are generally well-educated, but hold a subordinate rank with the European, while they consider themselves superior to the natives. They are the Creoles

of India. The French and Danes are relatively of small account; but the descendants of the Portuguese, who once possessed the whole coasts, are believed to amount to 600,000. These, however, maintain only a low station in society, and are little removed in civilization from the natives, among whom they herd. They are all Roman Catholics; but so sunk in idolatry and superstition, and so depraved, that they are despicable even to their Brahminical companions.

The Chinese are fast establishing themselves in Calcutta, and other cities, where their superior skill as artizans procures them ready and profitable employment. And, besides those which we have enumerated, there are various other petty tribes, races, and distinctions of class in all parts of India, some of which are partially civilized, while others remain in the lowest stage of savage life.

As no complete census has ever been taken, the total amount of the population of India is not known with any degree of certainty. Mr. Martin estimates it at 200,000,000, which is only 90 inhabitants to the square mile; and of that number more than one-half are subject to the British.

The learned language of the Hindoos is the "Sanskrit," (*Sancta Scripta*), in which most of their sacred books are written, and which, though no longer spoken, appears to be the parent of, or, at least, to be intimately connected with many of the living tongues or dialects of India. It has some affinity to the Latin, Greek and Teutonic dialects of Europe. The Sanscrit is written with 52 characters, several of which have no cognates in the languages of Europe. It has also a thousand syllabic abbreviations. Harmonious and rich, it is considered as the most perfect and refined of all original languages. The "Pracrit" is softened Sanscrit, and is spoken by the women, in their classic dramas. In modern India there are at least 30 distinct languages, of which the principal are the Bengalee, Hindoostanee, Mahratta, Tamul, Telinga, &c., and others indicated in name by the country in which they are spoken. Every small people has its own dialect. For a long time the modern Persian was used by the British Indian Government as the language of their state papers and courts of justice; but that practice is now abolished, and Hindoostanee substituted for general purposes; for all ordinary local purposes the vernacular language of the country is now the language of the courts and government. English, however, is everywhere making rapid progress, and all seem to be anxious to learn it, as the only channel to wealth and distinction; so that the day is, perhaps, not far distant, when we shall see our own speech spread over India as the common language of literature, science, government and religion.

India has ever been noted for its men of letters, and, as a consequent, education has been considered as the great highway to place and power. Schools are not of modern date, for every village possessed them before Europeans had any connection with the country. There are few Hindoos, indeed, who have not the rudiments of education: all can read and write, and in general possess some of the higher accomplishments. The ordinary routine generally commences in the fifth year, at which time the child is either taught by his father to write the alphabet, or is sent for that purpose to the village school. From the simple characters the pupil proceeds to the compound letters, to words, and to the figures of arithmetic. But the blessings of superior education are very partially diffused; and even among the Brahmins many are found ignorant of their sacred professional language, the Sanscrit. Among the warlike tribes of the north music forms a chief

part of their education, and considerable intellectual energy is sometimes exhibited among them. The sacred books being the depositories of science and the law, as well as of religion, are necessarily the great object of study to the native literati, some of whom have acquired a great reputation for learning; and here is the great fault, for the theories of these books are antiquated and erroneous, and of course preclude all real knowledge from the student.

The Indian Government, by its charter, is compelled to furnish schools in its territories, and for this purpose it has stipulated to expend the sum of £10,000, annually. Several colleges have been founded, and a great number of academies and schools for the native population. But besides these, the several churches are constantly setting up their own schools in every part of the territories, and all seem to be well attended by the young; and the natives everywhere exhibit the greatest eagerness to avail themselves of an English education for their children, and some of the colleges and schools have already produced accomplished scholars.

The religious belief of the Hindoos is called Brahminism, and is founded on a most extensive collection of sacred records, of which the Brahmins are allowed to be the sole expounders. "These sacred writings (says Mr. Statham, in his 'Indian Recollections') are of two kinds—the Vedas and Shastres. The former may be termed their Scriptures, the latter expositions of them. Beass Muni (that is, Beass the Inspired,) a prophet who lived in the reign of Judistheer, on the banks of the Jumna, near the present city of Delhi, collected all the detached pieces which form the Vedas, from all parts of India, and gave them their present form and arrangement. They are divided into four books, all written in the Sanscrit. The first book is called Rug Veda, which signifies the Science of Divination, concerning which it principally treats. The second is distinguished by the title of Sheham, which signifies piety or devotion, and this book treats of religious and moral duties. The third is the Judger Veda, which, as the word implies, includes the whole science of religious rites and ceremonies. The fourth is denominated Obater Bah: in the Sanscrit, *obater* signifies the being or essence, and *bah*, good; this, literally interpreted, is the knowledge of the Good Being, and accordingly this book comprehends the whole science of theology and metaphysical philosophy.

"The Vedas, as also the Shastres or commentaries, pretend to great antiquity; so much so, that many Europeans have been strangely staggered in their belief of the Mosaic chronology by reading them. But it only requires a little consideration and research to discover a vein of imposition running through the whole of their details. They reckon the duration of the world by four ages, or *jogeus*, extending altogether to about eight millions of years; but the fallacy of this reckoning has been fully exposed by astronomical observation.

"The idea which the Shastres give of God, is that there is one Supreme Being, whom they style Bhogabon or Esher, sometimes Khodah; proceeding from him are three powers or deities, namely, Bruhmha, the creator of all; Vishnu, the preserver of all; and Seeb or Sheva, the destroyer of all. Now, while the latter is worshipped by all, the former has scarcely any attention paid to his temples; and even Vishnu, the preserver, has few votaries compared with the destroyer Seeb. Subordinate to these are 330,000,000 inferior gods and goddesses, each representing some peculiar virtue or vice. The Hindoos suppose that each of the three presiding powers oftentimes

seeks to encroach upon the prerogative of his compeer, and thus are often quarrelling and seeking to subvert each other's arrangements."

One of their most superstitious practices consists in worshipping or deifying the waters of the Ganges. This large and beautiful river extends from west to east across an extensive district in Hindoostan Proper, and with its tributaries may be reached by a very large proportion of inhabitants in the most populous and productive part of India. The sacred ceremony of adoring the Ganges consists in the population crowding morning and evening to bathe in it, and quantities of the water are carried to all parts of India, and are sworn by in courts of justice. "At Allahabad (continues the above entertaining writer,) where the streams of the Ganges and Jumna unite, the country for many miles round is considered sacred ground; and so great is the number of pilgrims who resort thither for bathing, that the vizier has received in one year half a lac of rupees for permission to enjoy the benefit of immersion in the sacred flood. Many are the lives sacrificed here annually. The persons who thus fall victims to their superstition are generally females, who come from all parts of the country to perform the tragic deed, and who show a firmness of purpose worthy of a better cause. Several of them, accompanied by the priests, embark in a boat, and proceed to the spot where the streams unite, when each of the victims in succession descends from the boat to the river, with a large earthen pan fastened to her body, and is supported by a priest till she has filled the pan with water from the stream, when the priest lets go his hold, and she sinks to rise no more, amidst the applauses of the spectators, while the Brahmins enjoy the scene, and extol the fortitude of the last victim to her who is about to follow."

The cow is an animal held sacred among the Hindoos, and cow-dung is used in the temples and other places as a species of holy ointment. The lotus, a plant with tall luxuriant leaves, is likewise held in deep veneration. Some of the temples or pagodas of the Hindoos are of high antiquity and gigantic conception, majestic appearance, and tasteful architecture. The entrance is always made in a huge pyramid, in a number of stories, which gradually grow narrower as they approach the top. Inside may be seen the cow lying down, a serpent or some other object of adoration. Here sacrifices take place. One of the most extensive pagodas of India is that of Juggernaut, whose towers are seen at twenty miles distance. Here, as at other places, there are processions of idol cars, large heavy ornamented structures, which are dragged along by the multitude amid the shouts of assembled thousands. As the wheels pass swiftly, self-devoted victims rush forward, throw themselves before them, and are crushed to death, exulting in the hope of thus securing a passage to the celestial abodes. The practice of widows sacrificing themselves on the funeral pile of their husbands, is another horrid rite; but it has been suppressed in recent times by the British government.

Besides Brahminism, there are a variety of religious beliefs and sects in India, but all less or more founded on the most gross superstitions. Each possesses its own temples, images, and orders of priesthood. The Boodhists, previous to their violent expulsion by the Hindoos, were second in point of numbers; but their religion is now little known in India, and is confined chiefly to Thibet, Birmah, Siam, and Ceylon.

According to Mr. Hamilton, "the modern Mahomedans may with safety be estimated at one-seventh of the total population; and notwithstanding the subversion of their political predominance by a Christian power, their

religion continues to expand. They are no longer, however, the sanguinary zealots, who, eight hundred years ago, in the name of God and the prophet, spread desolation and slaughter among the unconverted Pagans. Open violence produced little effect on so patient a people; and although the Mahomedans subsequently lived for centuries intermixed with Hindoos, no radical change was produced in the manners or tenets of the latter; on the contrary, for almost a century past, the Mahomedans have evinced much deference to the prejudices of their Hindoo neighbours, and a strong predilection towards many of their ceremonies." The warlike portion of the Mahomedans having recently been dislodged by the British from the Mahratta courts, where they had found shelter, they have been obliged to seek employment in inferior stations. The Mahomedans of India are more intelligent, and possess greater strength and courage than the Hindoos; but they are also more proud, jealous, revengeful, and rapacious, and their fidelity is much less relied on by the British government. In some districts the Mahomedan population is nearly as numerous as that of the Hindoos, and both seem to live in a state of mutual amity.

Besides the Hindoos and Mahomedans, there are various scattered tribes in India, of a very different character from either, and often inhabiting mountainous tracts of country, and called Garrows, Monguls, Tartars, &c. Among the different races is found that of the Parsees or Persians, the ancient worshippers of fire, long since driven from their native country by the persecuting sword of the Arabs.

In the native states, the government is a pure despotism in its most naked and most oppressive form; the people and the land are alike the property of the rajah, the nabob, the sultan, or the padishah. The greater part of his revenues consists of the land rents, and these, with rare exceptions, he wastes in riot and debauchery. The instances of a good and enlightened prince, using his power and privileges for the welfare of his subjects, are rare indeed; and India everywhere retains the traces of the tyranny, the misrule, the anarchy, the quarrels, and the bloodshed which have been the pastime of her people and their rulers, from the commencement of her national existence. To this state of things the British ascendancy has so far put an end, that none of the native princes can, with the hope of impunity, follow the example of their predecessors, in measures of open violence. But their states are still left to the misrule of men destitute of the necessary qualifications of governors; and it will require a long continuance of peaceful habits, a complete regeneration, indeed, of Indian society, to root out the vices so intimately interwoven with the national character, as well of the rulers as of the ruled.

The education of the native princes not only unfits them for government, but is often conducted on this very principle by those who have the direction of it. From infancy the future rulers are taught to consider themselves the favorites of Heaven, to whose use and convenience all other created beings are subservient. Possessing no feeling beyond an exaggerated idea of their own greatness and power; incapacitated by early excesses, habitual indolence, and gross ignorance, from forming an opinion of any serious subject, they sink into an early grave; and they advance in succession through the same process, each ending his worthless life in the same manner. The affairs of the kingdom or state are left to the management of adventurers, whose sole aim is to secure a large portion of plunder to themselves, before they are succeeded by others, destined to act in the same manner and on the

same principle. In the native governments, however, there is hardly any greater source of evil than the female supremacy which has existed in the country—a system of female government uncongenial with Asiatic institutions, but which the British rulers have unfortunately managed everywhere to foster, instead of putting it down. A prince dies; his widow is allowed to adopt an heir; she adopts the youngest she can find, that her own reign may be as long as possible; and when the heir grows up she tries to dispose of him, that she may adopt another infant. In order to acquire the sceptre, these ladies have been suspected of destroying their husbands, and, in order to retain it, of disposing of their adopted children, or even of their sons. Secluded, as all women of rank are in India, they have no opportunity of learning the character or capacity of the men they entrust with the conduct of affairs; but they are generally found to consider such points as of little importance, and to select either their own paramours, or those of some favorite attendant, commonly making them paramours after they are chosen, if not before. Under such a system, the people are governed by a set of miscreants whom they detest and despise, and who, knowing that they are detested and despised, set no bounds to their rapacity.

The superintendence, direction, and control of the whole civil and military government of the British territories and revenues in India, is vested in a Governor-General and Councillors, styled “the Governor-General of India in Council.” The Council is composed of four ordinary members, three of whom are chosen from the East India Company’s servants; and, when there is a separate Commander-in-Chief, that officer is an extraordinary member, taking rank and precedence next after the Governor-General. The Governor-General in Council are empowered to *legislate* in every matter touching the government of India, and may assemble and meet in any place; but, when their meeting is held within the territory of Bombay or Madras, the Governor of that presidency is for the time an extraordinary member. The *Executive* Government of Bengal was intended to be vested in the Governor-General, and those three of his councillors who are Company’s servants; but by virtue of a new interpretation of the act of Parliament, the Government of Bengal has been transferred from the Governor-General in Council to the Governor-General himself, in his new capacity of Governor of Bengal. The Government of Agra is administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, or by the Governor-General himself, when he resides within its limits. In each of the other presidencies the Executive Government is likewise vested in a Governor and two Councillors; but these have no power to make laws or to grant money, and are subject in all respects to the orders of the Governor-General in Council, who in their turn are subject to the orders of the Court of Directors of the East India Company, acting under the superintendence of the Board of Control for the affairs of India, and ultimately responsible to the British Parliament. Misgovernment is thus guarded against with as much care and effect as the great distance between Britain and India will admit.

The capitals of the three presidencies are subject to the laws of England, and justice is administered within their limits by Supreme Courts, the judges of which are appointed by the Crown. But, within the rest of the territory, justice is administered according to Hindoo or Mahomedan law, by courts of various degrees of authority, under European and native judges, from whose decisions appeals lie to the *Sudder-Dewanny* and *Nizamut-dawlet*, or supreme courts of civil and criminal law, attached to each presidency, and ultimately to the Queen in Council. A new digest or code

of laws for these courts has recently been prepared and promulgated by Government.

For administrative purposes the whole of the settled territory is divided into shires or provinces, called *zillahs*, *circars*, or *collectorates*, each of which is placed under the charge of a government officer, and has its peculiar courts; but the newly acquired territories are generally entrusted for a time to commissioners, who are vested with the whole powers of government, civil, military, and financial, subject of course to the orders of the Government of the presidency to which they belong. Under the former Mogul governments, a certain number of villages formed a *pergunnah*; a certain number of *pergunnahs*, comprehending a tract of country equal to a moderately-sized county, formed a *chuckla*; of these a certain number formed a *circar*; and several *circars* formed a *soubah* or province, to each of which was assigned a *soubahdar* or governor, who exercised the whole functions of government, civil, military, and financial. Through the various changes of rulers which India has undergone, the Hindoos, in all the settled parts of the country, have uniformly been divided into small communities, or townships, where not only the public services, but also the handicrafts, with the exception of mere agricultural labor, have been performed by persons who hold them by hereditary succession, and who are paid by certain portions of land, or by fixed presents. The principal of these is the *potail*, or headsman, under whom are the officers and servants of police; an officer whose business it is to be acquainted with all the local rights and boundaries, and to settle all disputes respecting land; the superintendent of warehouses, the brahmin, the astrologer, the schoolmaster, the village register, the smith, the carpenter, the poet, the barber, the musician, and the dancing girl; and in levying revenues, or demanding services of any kind, it has always been found the most expedient method to apply to the heads of the village, and delegate to them the task of collecting and apportioning it. In some provinces, however, the collection of the revenue had been entrusted to certain officers, called *zemindars*, &c., who, acquiring by degrees an hereditary tenure of office, and being merely obliged to pay a certain fixed rent, came in time to be viewed as proprietors, burdened only with a land-tax, and as such they were dealt with by Lord Cornwallis, in his settlement of the land-revenues of Bengal. Being entrusted at the same time, to a great extent, with the administration of justice and police, they became in a certain degree the feudal lords of the district. Under them were the immediate cultivators of the soil, the *ryots*, who, either by original right, or long-established usage, retained the land, so long as the rent was paid, in undisturbed succession from father to son.

The revenues of all Asiatic states are drawn principally from the land, the whole of which is regarded as the property of the sovereign. To this general rule the British Indian Government forms no exception; for the greater proportion of their territorial revenues consists of the land rents, collected in some provinces through the instrumentality of *zemindars*, whom, as we have stated, the government have constituted hereditary proprietors of the land, though they were formerly only collectors; and in others, derived directly from the *ryots* or cultivators, by the officers of government, according to permanent or temporary arrangements, as the case may be. The rest of the revenue consists of the profits of the monopoly of salt, opium, and tobacco; and of taxes on imported merchandise, stamps, licences, postages, and various other imposts. The average annual revenue

amounts to about £15,930,000; and the average annual expenditure, including interest on debt, but exclusive of the charge of collection, to £14,632,000. Of the finances of the native princes no account can be given.

Each presidency has its separate army, commander-in-chief, staff, &c.; but the commander-in-chief of the supreme government possesses a general authority over all the presidencies. The total armed force in British India is about 194,000 men, which may be said to consist of three branches, namely: Queen's cavalry and infantry; the East India Company's European engineers, artillery, and infantry; and the Company's native artillery, cavalry, and infantry. The last branch has two sets of commission officers, the one European and the other native, the latter consisting of soubahdars, jemadars, and havildars, or captains, lieutenants, and ensigns, who, though holding nominally the same rank as the corresponding European officers, are nevertheless all subordinate to the lowest European commissioned officers. The total number of European troops in India, besides commissioned officers, is usually about 30,000, of whom two-thirds are Queen's regiments, the remainder consisting of persons enlisted in Britain directly for the East India Company's service. The native troops are composed of Hindoos and Moslems, &c., who are mixed in every regiment; they are usually called Seapoys and Sipahs, and, in discipline, cleanliness, sobriety, bravery, and fidelity, are not surpassed by any body of men. The native artillery make it a point of honour never to desert their guns, and wherever a British officer has been found to lead, it has rarely or never happened that the seapoys refused to follow. The native cavalry are excellent and fearless riders, superior in that respect even to Europeans, and good swordsmen; they are exceedingly fond of their horses, and treat them with the greatest kindness. Of the whole army it may be said that no men are more alive to emulation; a medal is as highly prized by a seapoy as by a British soldier; and many instances of their heroism have been related which would do honour to Greek or Roman story. The Bengal army is considered to possess the men of the highest caste, most of them being Brahmins and Rajpoots; the Bombay seapoy is more a man of all-work; and the Madrasites are perhaps the hardest race; but all are extremely tenacious of their rights, and adhere punctiliously to the customs which their religion ordains.—(*Martin's Statistics, &c.* p. 325.)

Besides the regular British army, several of the native princes are obliged by treaty to maintain subsidiary troops, who in fact form a guard over the conduct of those who pay them; and, in the event of war, they are required to furnish contingents for service in the field. Formerly, the Indian troops were little better than an undisciplined rabble, called out for the special purposes of the war in which their ruler happened to be engaged; or consisted of mercenary soldiers, who sold their services to the highest bidder, and who changed from one employer to another, just as it suited their interest or caprice. Latterly, several of the princes have attempted to form and maintain regular armies, disciplined in the European manner; but, from imperfect training, the want of proper officers, or general mismanagement, these armies, when brought into collision with the British troops, have proved hardly more efficient than their undisciplined predecessors. But the fighting men form the smallest part of the Indian army; the attendants, servants, and camp followers are innumerable. Each of the British seapoys has his personal servants at all times; but, when the army takes the field,



the number of attendants is prodigiously increased. When General Harris advanced against Seringapatam, in 1799, his army consisted of 35,000 soldiers, and 120,000 attendants; and when the Marquis of Hastings, in 1817, commenced the Mahratta war, his fighting force amounted to 110,000 men, his camp followers to half a million.

The navy of the British Indian Empire was at one time very considerable, but is now much diminished; it consists only of a few vessels of war of the smaller classes, several armed steamers, and some surveying vessels. The navy is attached to the Bombay presidency; and measures are now in progress to convert it into an armed steam flotilla. At Calcutta, there is a marine establishment, which, though not of a warlike character, is nevertheless of the utmost importance. It is the pilot service which consists of 12 strong, well fitted, and quick-sailing vessels, of 200 tons burden, several of which are always stationed off the mouths of the Ganges and the Hoogly, on the look-out for vessels coming up the bay, into each of which they place a European pilot, and a leadsman to steer the course to Calcutta. There are 120 Europeans employed in this service; the first rank being of a branch pilot, who are 12 in number, and receive each £70 a month. The cost of the pilot service, including pilots, men, vessels, light-houses, buoys, and other necessary adjuncts, exceeds £150,000 a year.

Agriculture throughout India is in the lowest condition; the implements used are of the rudest kind, and the cultivator follows the routine of his forefathers, without ever dreaming of improvement.

The great fertility of the soil generally insures a sufficient supply of food; but so dependent is vegetation, in this hot climate, upon the supply of moisture, that an unusual continuance of dry weather sometimes occasions dreadful famines. Tanks or artificial ponds, and wells, are spread in countless numbers over every tract of cultivated country; and the former, being often of great extent, and maintained by strong dams, present an interesting proof of the power of human skill and industry in averting an evil so incident to the climate, and supplying to the thirsty soil that moisture of which it is deprived by the long droughts of a tropical region. Without these innumerable wells and reservoirs, which have been created by the labor of successive generations, a great part of India would speedily become an uncultivated desert. European skill and capital are now, to a large extent, applied to the production of indigo and opium, principally in Bahar and Malwah; and tea is cultivated in Upper Assam, where it is already grown of good quality, and may be raised almost to any extent which the market may require. The cultivation of the indigo plant occupies above a million of acres, yielding an annual produce of the value of two or three millions sterling. Silk is the next important article. There are in India three species of mulberry-tree, and two kinds of silk worm; the silk districts, which are in Bengal, are all situated between the parallels of 22° and 26° N. and longitude 86° and 90° E. Opium is produced in Malwah and Bahar; and in 1836 was exported, for the purpose of being smuggled into China, to the enormous extent of 26,018 chests, valued at 17,106,903 dollars.

The working of mines is scarcely worth mentioning; diamonds are procured near Punnah, in Bundelcund; coal is wrought in the district of Burdwan, in Bengal, and in other places; and iron in the Carnatic, where excellent steel is manufactured at Porto-Novo.

For many ages India was famous for the weaving of silk, cotton, and goats-wool, particularly for muslins and calicoes; but since the opening of

the trade in 1813, the introduction of British manufactured goods has almost entirely ruined the Hindoo manufacturers, without supplying a substitute for their employment. In woollen textures, iron work, and earthenware, there are few nations more rude or less successful.

Notwithstanding the vast demand in Europe for the staple productions of India, and the unlimited capability of the country to furnish them, the native products have hitherto been exported only to a comparatively small extent. The commerce, however, both in exports and imports, has increased immensely since the trade was opened. According to the published parliamentary returns, the value of the imports into the presidency of Bengal in the year 1836-7, amounted to 40,429,076 Company's rupees; into Madras, 15,125,857; into Bombay, 47,245,571; total, 102,800,504 rupees, or \$54,000,000. The value of the exports for the same year amounted, in Bengal, to 67,847,147; Madras, 27,854,757; Bombay, 59,905,978; total, 155,607,882 rupees, or \$89,320,000. The maritime trade centres in Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras; but the people of Mandivee, in Cutch, likewise carry on a great trade; and from Curachee, in Sinde, caravans of camels convey large quantities of goods towards Cabul, Candahar, and other places to the north-west of India; bringing back in return the produce of these countries for exportation. Upwards of 1,000 Arabian ships also arrive annually in India between the monsoons; by which an extensive commerce is maintained in a quiet imperceptible manner, through the means of obscure native agents, who freight the Arab boats; and thus many thousand tons of British manufactured goods are bought from the merchants, and find their way into the heart of the most remote and most barbarous countries. But besides the commerce of Europe, a considerable trade is carried on with the Persian Gulf and Arabia; and with China and the Asiatic Islands the trade is also great. A large quantity of wool is now exported from Bombay, the produce of the sheep pastured along the Indus and other districts beyond the British frontier. The increased safety of communication which now exists throughout all India is fast producing its natural results, in a rapidly increasing internal commerce. Inland customs are also now abolished, and traders may carry their goods from one extremity of the country to the other, without being pillaged at every step, as formerly, by custom-house officers. For the encouragement of this trade, two banks have been established in Calcutta; one at Agra, and one at Bombay. The available capital of these banks is less than £2,000,000 sterling; they have little or no intercourse with England; and their business is chiefly confined to the limited population of the presidencies. The great mass of the people are dependent on the shroffs or money-lenders for pecuniary assistance, at the rate of two per cent. a-month, or on the government for small advances to carry on their agricultural operations from seed time till harvest. The monetary circulation consists of the rupee, a silver coin of no more than two shillings value, with copper and shells. To remedy these inconveniences, a great establishment, called the Bank of Asia, with branches in India, has been established in London.

India is divided politically into a number of states, which may be arranged into five classes:—1. Territories under the immediate government of the East India Company; 2. Subject States, left to the rule of the native princes, but under the protection and complete control of the Company; 3. States under British protection, or alliance, but without interference of their internal governments, 4. Independent States; and 5.

Colonies of other nations except the British. The names of all these, with their dimensions and population, are stated in the following table :—

## I.—BRITISH TERRITORIES.

	<i>Area in sq. m.</i>	<i>Population.</i>
Presidency of Fort William, Bengal.		
1. Government of Bengal, Bahar, Orissa, including Assam, } Arracan, &c.....	181,684	42,000,000
2. Government of Agra or Northwest Provinces.....	170,210	18,000,000
Presidency of Fort St. George, Madras.....	121,982	16,000,000
Presidency of Bombay.....	62,542	7,000,000
Total.....	536,418	83,000,000

## II. AND III.—SUBJECT AND PROTECTED STATES.\*

Nizam or King of Hydrabad†.....	89,000	10,000,000
Rajah of Berar or King of Nagpore†.....	57,000	3,000,000
“ Sattarah.....	8,000	800,000
“ Kolapore } Mahrattas.....	1,000	300,000
“ Sawuntwaree }.....	950	95,000
“ Travancore†.....	4,500	450,000
“ Cochinf.....	2,000	200,000
“ Mysore (now annexed to Madras).....	23,000	2,200,000
“ Sikim.....	4,500	450,000
Padishah or King of Oude†.....	24,000	6,000,000
Rajah of Rewah, in Bundelcund.....	10,000	1,000,000
Chiefs of Dhattea, Jhansi, and Tehri, in ditto.....	16,000	1,500,000
Rajah of Bhurtpore.....	2,000	190,000
“ Dholpore, Baree, &c.....	1,600	160,000
Nawub or Nabob of Bhopal, in Malwah.....	6,700	670,000
Holkar's Territory in Malwah.....	4,200	420,000
Rajahs of Dhar nad Dewas, in ditto.....	1,400	140,000
Guicowar or King of Baroda†.....	25,000	2,500,000
Rao of Kutch or Kach'ht.....	7,300	350,000
Rajpoot and other Princes in Rajpootana and Malwah.....	109,000	6,800,000
Rajahs of Patiala, Keytal, Naba, Jeeud, &c, between the Jumnah } and the Sutlej.....	16,600	500,000
Bhawul-Khan, Chief of the Daoudpūttras.....	30,000	350,000
Ameers of Sind†.....	60,000	200,000
Total.....	510,750	38,875,000

## IV.—INDEPENDENT STATES.

The Maharajah Scindia† in Central India.....	32,944	3,250,000
The Punjaub or Kingdom of Lahore†.....	160,000	4,000,000
The Kingdom of Nepál or Nepaul.....	36,000	2,000,000
Bootan or the Country of Deb-Rajah.....	20,000	1,000,000
Total.....	248,944	10,250,000

## V.—COLONIES OF OTHER NATIONS, EXCEPT BRITISH.

French Territory.....	530	210,000
Danish Territory.....	93	35,000
Portuguese Territory.....	1,200	500,000
Total.....	1,823	745,000
Grand Total of India.....	1,297,935	132,287,000

\* These do not in reality differ much, and we have, therefore, united them under the same head.

† These states belong to the third class.

‡ The British have recently conquered and annexed some portions of these states to Agra or the north west Provinces.

We shall now proceed to describe the different provinces of India in the order above marked out:—

### THE PRESIDENCY OF BENGAL.

THIS Presidency is the original territory granted in stewardship by the Emperor of Delhi to the East India Company, in 1765. It is now divided into two governments:—1. The Government of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa; and, 2. The Government of Agra, or the North-west Provinces.

1. THE GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL, &c., includes a large territory at the head of the gulf of the same name, and is divided into four provinces and thirty districts, or zillahs, viz.:—

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Zillahs or Districts.</i>
CALCUTTA.....	City of Calcutta and suburbs, Hoogly, Nuddea, Jessore, Cuttack, Midnapore, Burdwan, and Jungle-Mehauls.
PATNA.....	Ramghur, Behar, Tirhoot, Sarun, Shahabad, and Patna.
MOORSHEDABAD.....	Bhaugulpore, Purneah, Dinagepore, Rungpoor, Rajeshahys, Birbhoom, and Moorshedabad.
DACCA.....	Mymensing, Sylhet, Tipperahe, Chittagong, Backergung, Dacca, and Dacca-gelalapore.

The principal towns in Bengal, &c., are Calcutta, Patna, Rakhain, or Arracan, &c., besides which there are about 16,000 villages, containing by a late return 7,781,240 houses.

CALCUTTA, the capital of all British India, is situated on the left bank of the Hoogly river, one hundred miles from the sea. The city and suburbs extend along the river more than six miles. The European residences are built in the Grecian style, generally detached, and are situated at the southern part of the city, which is called Chowringhee, or in the suburbs. The natives reside in the Black Town, a congeries of narrow and dirty streets, most of which are lined with mud hovels, but contain also some large houses of the rich Baboos. Fort William stands on the river side, separated from the city by a wide esplanade. It cost £2,000,000, and takes 12,000 or 15,000 to man the works; and the barracks are large enough for 20,000 men. The only other building deserving special notice is the Palace of the Governor-General, which is built in the Ionic style, on the north side of the esplanade. A fine quay, called the Strand, extends between two and three miles along the banks of the river northward from the fort, and a fine drive called the Circular Road, is carried round the whole city, marking the limits of the English law. The river is almost a mile wide, and ships of 600 tons can lay alongside the quay, and at Kidderpore, there are docks in which ships of any size can be built or repaired. There are eleven Christian places of worship, several small mosques and pagodas, and a number of colleges and schools. The population amounts to about 230,000, of which 3,200 are English; 4,800 Eurasians (half-breeds); 3,200 Portuguese; 160 French; 670 Armenians; 360 Chinamen; 300 Jews; 54,000 Mahomedans; 570 Moguls; 40 Parsees; 350 Arabs; 600 Mugs; 55 Mudrasses; and the remainder chiefly Hindoos. Males 145,000—females 85,000. But besides this population there is a daily influx and efflux of from 100,000 to 150,000 from the suburbs and surrounding country. The total population of Calcutta and its suburbs is stated at 665,000. On the west side of the Hoogly there is a splendid Botanic Garden, of 300 acres, and near it, opposite Fort William, is Bishop's College, a large Gothic building, forming three sides of a square.

By means of the Ganges and its branches, Calcutta has the benefit of a very extensive inland navigation, and thereby also monopolizes the whole external commerce of Bengal. BARRACKPORE, ten miles from Calcutta, contains a cantonment, the head-quarters of the troops of the Presidency, with a country house of the Governor, and a fine park. The artillery cantonment is at Dum-Dum. DACCA, formerly the capital of Bengal, is a large, irregularly built town, and the principal seat of the muslin manufacture. It is now falling to decay. It contains 158 mosques, 55 Hindoo temples and Christian churches, and about 45,000 inhabitants. MOORSHEED-ABAD, which extends eight miles along both sides of the Cossimbazar river, was the capital from 1704 to 1771, and is still the residence of the native hereditary prince or nabob, who is a pensioner of the Company. Population of the town and district, 762,000.

PATNA is a large city on the right bank of the Ganges, containing about 300,000 inhabitants. CUTTACK, the capital of Orissa, is situated on a branch of the Mahanuddy, and contains about 40,000 inhabitants. POOREE, a small town on the coast, 45 miles south of Cuttack, is considered the Montpelier of Bengal on account of its fine climate. It contains the celebrated Temple of Juggernaut, who is an incarnation of Vishnu. The body of the temple consists of a pagoda 200 feet high, which forms a landmark at sea; and the various services are performed by about 3,000 Brahmins and their attendants. The number of pilgrims that attend the yearly festival amounts to nearly 100,000. The neighboring country is the Holy Land of Buddhists.

ASSAM, in the valley of the Brahmapûtra, contains several cities which have a local celebrity. Its most ancient capital was GHERGONG, a city of great extent, built of brick or stone; and about ten miles from it is Azoo, the burial place of the kings, where their remains were deposited in a vault under a magnificent temple. During the splendour of the Assam princes GOWHATTI was also a large city and fortress, and is again growing up to a well-built and populous town. Assam became a part of British India in 1826.

ARRACAN, the capital of the lately ceded territory of the same name, stands on a navigable river. It was formerly very large, but its population is now only about 3,000. Its trade has passed to Akyab, at the mouth of the river, a place which has been selected on account of its advantageous position for health and trade.

To the south of Arracan are situated several wild countries, named Cachar, Zipperah, Munipoor, Garrows, &c., which form a sort of neutral territory between Bengal and Birmah. CHUNDRAPOOR, the present capital of Munipoor, consists mostly of ruined temples, mounds, and ditches. The inhabitants of these provinces were relieved from the Birman sway in 1825, by the British; and have since been ruled by their own Rajahs, without British interposition.

2. The GOVERNMENT OF AGRA, or the north-western provinces, extends from the mouth of the Soane upwards, along the Ganges and the Jumna, to the sources of these rivers, including the peninsula between them, Gundwana, Orissa, and several other districts. The territory includes about 170,210 square miles, and a population of 18,000,000. The country comprises four provinces, and a number of minor divisions, viz. :

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Zillahs or Districts.</i>	<i>Area in Sq. Miles.</i>
AGRA PROPER.....	Allahabad, Fettehpore, N. Bundelcund, S. Bundelcund, Benares, Ghazeepore, Gurruckpore, Jampur, Azimghur, Mirzapore, Agra, Allyghur, Furruckabad, Bareilly, Shah-jehan-pore, Saharumpore, Meerut, Cawnpore, Etawah, Moradabad, and Bundshuhur.	66,510
THE HILL COUNTRIES OF KUMAON, &c.....		18,000
NERBUDDAH.....	(Ceded by the Rajah of Berar in 1826.)	29,800
GUNDWANA AND ORISSA..		55,900
Total.....		170,210

Allahabad, Benares, Agra, Delhi, Ajmere, Ghazeepore, Bareilly, Almora, Saugur, &c., are the chief towns.

ALLAHABAD, the seat of government, is an ancient city, at the confluence of the Ganges and the Jumna, 820 miles west of Calcutta, by the river. The houses are chiefly built of mud ; but it has a strong fortress, originally built by the Emperor Akbar, and so situated as to command the navigation of both rivers. Population, 65,000. BENARES, also called Kashi, the sacred capital of Hindooism, is a large city, on the left bank of the Ganges, and is the chief seat of Brahminical learning, as well as a great mart or entrepôt for the trade between the north-west and south-east, and has, besides, considerable manufactures. The reputation of this city makes it the resort of a great number of pilgrims, and many of the rich, in the decline of life, come to reside here, in order to wash out their sins before eternity overtakes them. The population amounts to 400,000. AGRA, which gives its name to the government, is situated on the right bank of the Jumna. It was formerly a very large and populous city, and one of the capitals of the Mogul Empire, but has fallen to decay, though it still contains about 100,000 inhabitants. FUTTEHPOOR-SIKRI, formerly the Versailles of the Mogul Emperor, is now a collection of huts and ruins. DELHI, still the residence of the Great Mogul, whose empire is now limited to the walls of his palace, and whose revenue consists of a pension from the East India Company, is situated on the right bank of the Jumna. It is one of the most ancient cities of India, and celebrated in history under the name of Indiaprest. The city formerly occupied a space of 20 square miles, but a great part of this area is now covered with ruins. The present city is about seven miles in circumference, and is surrounded on three sides by walls faced with substantial masonry, and pierced with seven gates. Within are the remains of many splendid mosques and palaces. The imperial palace stands within an enclosure of red stone-work, and is built in a beautiful style. The gardens of Shahlimar, which cost so much, and were so celebrated, are now destroyed. The present population is about 200,000 souls. AJMERE is rapidly rising from its decay, and promises to become one of the chief cities.

## THE PRESIDENCY OF MADRAS.

THE authority of this Presidency extends over a great part of the peninsula, stretching along the east coast from the Chilka Lake to Cape Comorin, and including on the west coast the provinces of Malabar and Canara. The Presidency consists of five large provinces, viz :

CARNATIC-PAYEN-GHAUT, or Lower Carnatic ; CARNATIC-BALA-GHAUT, or Upper Carnatic ; NORTHERN CIRCARS, divided into the districts of Ganjam,

Vizagapatam, Rajamundry, Masulipatam and Guntoor; MALABAR and CANARA. The area of this territory is nearly 122,000 square miles, and contains a population of 16,000,000. Mysore, with an area of 28,000 square miles, and a population of 2,800,000, has lately been annexed.

The chief cities are Madras, the capital of the Presidency, Arcot, Vizagapatam, Seringapatam, Calicut, &c.

MADRAS is situated on the Coromandel coast, in the Lower Carnatic. The principal part of the city is Fort St. George, which is handsome and strong, and stands in a commanding position. In the middle stands the original fort, now converted into government offices, the governor's house and the exchange. The Europeans, however, reside entirely in their garden houses in the vicinity. The "pettah," or Black Town, is somewhat less than half a mile north of the first, from which it is separated by an esplanade. It is very extensive, but in general meanly built and dirty. There are in it, however, many fine houses belonging to merchants and shop-keepers, and many streets of neat small houses occupied by Portuguese, Armenians and half-castes, or by such of the native merchants and clerks as have acquired European habits. The population, including that of the suburbs, amounts to 700,000, one-half of which are Hindoos, three-tenths Mahomedans, and two-tenths Indo-British, Europeans and Armenians. Madras trades with Europe, America, the Asiatic islands, China, Birmah, Calcutta and Ceylon. Madras has no harbor, but large ships moor in the road in from 7 to 9 fathoms of water, two miles from shore, and goods and passengers are shipped and landed by means of Masullah boats, which being light, buoyant and elastic, carry them safely through the tremendous surf which always beats upon the coast. In the fort there is a lighthouse 90 feet above the level of the sea, which may be seen from the deck of a ship 17 miles distant, or from the mast head 26 miles.

ARCOT, the capital of the Carnatic and residence of the Nabob of Arcot, consists of a fort surrounded by a large town, on the banks of the river Palar. The fortress of VELLORE is now used as a state's prison, and is considered as one of the most secure in the world, being surrounded by a large wet ditch well stocked with alligators of great strength and ferocity! CALICUT, in Malabar, is celebrated as the first place touched by Vasco de Gama, after his successful voyage round the Cape of Good Hope in 1498. The other towns are more noted for the amount of their population and manufactures than any peculiarities that need special description.

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## THE PRESIDENCY OF BOMBAY.

THE territory of this government is very irregular in outline, and stretches over several detached parcels in the old Mogul provinces of Arungabad, Beejapore, Khandeish and Gujrat. In all it comprises 62,542 square miles, and has a population of about 7,000,000. The principal part of the territory extends along the west coast of the peninsula from near Goa to the mouth of the Nerbuddah, and is divided into thirteen collectorates, viz: Bombay, Poonah, Ahmednugger, Khandeish, Dharwar, South Jagheerdars, Sattara-Jagheerdars, South Concan, North Concan, Surat, Broach, Ahmedabad and Kaira.

There are in Bombay nearly 17,000 towns and villages. The principal are Bombay, Surat, Poonah, &c.

BOMBAY, the capital of the Presidency, is situated in a small rocky, barren

and once pestilential island, on the north-west side of the entrance to the bay, in latitude  $18^{\circ} 56' N.$ , and longitude  $72^{\circ} 57'$  east. The city is built on the south-east side of the island, and is surrounded by walls about two miles in circuit, which are mounted on the east side with formidable batteries. The houses are excessively crowded and very lofty, and generally built in the Portuguese style. Three sides of the walls are washed by the sea, on a fourth is the esplanade, and beyond it is the Black Town, spreading out amid a wood of cocoa-nut trees; and still further off, the cocoa-nut wood is studded with villas. The merchants, in the dry season, generally live in bungaloes or tents, erected on the esplanade, where they enjoy the benefit of the sea-breeze. The population amounts to about 230,000. Including the English and Portuguese, there are no less than 19 languages spoken on the island. The Persians are the most wealthy part of the population. Bombay is the only principal settlement in India where the rise of the tides is sufficient to permit the construction of docks on a large scale. The highest tides rise 17 feet. The docks and dock-yards are capacious, and are entirely occupied by Parsees or Persians, who are complete masters of the art of ship-building, and construct vessels of the largest class. Bombay is the great entrepôt of the trade of the Red Sea, the east coast of Africa, Arabia, the Persian Gulf, the Indian Archipelago and China. European and American vessels find cargoes here from the greater part of India, consisting of drugs, spices, arrack, shawls, cornelians, agates, cotton, &c. Many fine ships are owned by Parsees and other native merchants.

SURAT, or Soorat, is a very large city, with 600,000 inhabitants, on the right bank of Tuptee, and the seat of the Sudder-Adawlut, or supreme court of the Presidency. It is nevertheless falling to decay, in consequence of its trade having been diverted to Bombay; and in April, 1837, many thousand houses were destroyed by fire. The most remarkable establishment is the pinjra-pol, a hospital for sick, maimed and aged animals, supported by the Banians. Even rats, mice, insects, and vermin of all kinds, are not only tolerated, but fed. Surat and its neighborhood are thronged with religious devotees, as Fakirs, Jogies, and Gossaens; and at Pulparrah, on the Tuptee, six miles distant, is a holy place, abounding with altars, temples, and sacred trees.

POONAH, or Punah, lately the capital of the Mahratta Empire, is situated in a small hollow on the banks of the river Moota-Moolla, in a very extensive barren plain, 2000 feet above the level of the sea, and surrounded by trap-hills 1,500 or 2,000 feet higher. It has lately been converted from an ill-built, straggling town, into a substantial city. Poonah contains a Sanscrit college; and about two miles from the city is a good botanical garden, filled with the choicest plants. Population, 70,000.

#### STATES SUBJECT TO, OR PROTECTED BY THE BRITISH.

NEARLY one-half of Hindoostan is held by governments in subsidiary alliance with the Indo-British government. The general terms of the treaties with these are—on the side of the English, protection against external enemies, and on the other, a submitting in all political relations with foreign states to the arbitration and final adjudication of the British. A force is furnished by the East India Company, and a territory equivalent to



the maintainance of the troops ceded by the former ; the subsidizing state is also bound to keep on foot a specific contingent force, to act in subordinate co-operation with the subsidiary. The protecting power is not to interfere in the internal administration of the protected state, but in cases of exigency it reserves the right in general to assume the whole of the resources of the protected state. The subsidiary force is liable to be called out to protect the legal succession to power, but not to be employed between the head of the government and its "jarejahs" or chiefs. The states in this connection are Oude, the Deccan, Baroda, Scindia, Holkar, &c., Nagpoor, Kutch, Mysore, Travancore, Cochin, &c. Some of these, however, can scarcely be said to belong to this class, recent events having altered their affairs. Scindia and Mysore seem to have been annexed to the Presidencies, and the affairs of Oude are in a very questionable condition. The net subsidy of all these is stated by Martin at £4,339,994 sterling per annum.

Besides the foregoing governments there are several minor principalities, with whom treaty engagements have been entered into agreeably to the peculiar circumstances of each, but with general stipulations applicable to all, viz. that the protected state maintain no correspondence of a political tendency with foreign powers, without the privity or consent of the British Government, to which the adjustment of its political differences is to be referred. They are perfectly independent in their internal rule, but acknowledge the supremacy of the British Government. When the interests of both powers are concerned, the troops of the protected state act in the field in subordinate co-operation to the British forces, the latter being empowered to avail themselves of natural or other advantages in the allied country, against an enemy, when necessary. No asylum for criminals or defaulters is permitted, and every assistance is required to be given to effect their apprehension in the state. Europeans not to be employed without British permission. According to the resources of the protected state a tribute is required, or a military contingent to be kept in readiness, or service to be rendered according to the means of the protected state. The states protected in this way are all those in II. and III. of table, not included in the list above given. We will now proceed to a brief description of these states in the order in which they are arranged in the general table.

I.—HYDRABAD, belonging to the hereditary Mogul Soubahdar of the Deccan, occupies the middle portion of the table-land of the Deccan, and comprises some fine tracts of land, and towards the north the valley of Berar is particularly fertile. It is traversed by the Godavery and Kistna. The people are agricultural. The army consists of 15,000 regular infantry, with a sufficient artillery and a cavalry, generally commanded by British officers. The British subsidiary force is about 12,000. A great part of the country is possessed by Jarejahs, a sort of feudal lords, who draw all the rents. Only a small part of the kingdom is governed directly by the Nizam himself. His Highness is the descendant of Nizam-ul-mulk, who, after the death of Aurungzebe, obtained possession of the Mogul conquests in the Deccan, about the year 1717, but since that time, the limits of his territory have experienced great fluctuations.

*Hydrabad*, the capital, is a large city, densely inhabited by Moslems, Patans, and Hindoos. The manufactures are not important: the chief being silks interwoven with gold, called kinkaabs, turbans, and small ornaments. The house of the British Resident is the finest in the city. Population, 80,000. The surrounding country is beautiful, and diversi-

fied; but such is the character of the people, that it is stated to be a paradise inhabited by devils. The fort of Golconda, six miles west, is the depository of the Nizam's jewels and treasures, and in the vicinity are the tombs of the kings of Golconda, a dynasty that ruled in the 16th and 17th centuries. The celebrated diamond mines of Golconda are now exhausted. *Arungabad* is a large city of 60,000 inhabitants, but much decayed. *Assay* is an insignificant village, but celebrated for the splendid victory of Wellington over the armies of Scindia and Berar, 23d Sept. 1803. *Beeder*, *Dowlatabad*, *Ellichpore*, *Omrawutty*, &c. are also important towns.

2.—BERAR, or the KINGDOM OF NAGPOOR, is situated chiefly in Gundwana and Orissa. Berar is fertile in peas, flax, sugar, betel, and tobacco. The wheat is reckoned the best in India, and with maize forms the staple food of the people. The sovereign, recently a feudatory of the Mahratta Empire, is allowed to maintain a standing army of only 1,000 horse.

*Nagpore*, the capital, is more than five miles in circuit, and contains about 80,000 inhabitants. The greater part of the houses are merely mud-hovels, ranged along narrow winding paths. The town contains two palaces, one belonging to the descendants of the old sovereign and one to the present rajah. Nagpore has a few manufactures of silk, cotton, arms and accoutrements, and a considerable transit trade. The neighboring country is fertile, and contains many beautiful gardens. The British Residency and Fort adjoins and commands the town. *Ramteak*, a place of great sanctity among the Hindoos; and *Chandah*, a walled town three miles in circuit, are the other principal places in this territory.

3.—SATTARAH, KOLAPORE, SAWUNTWAREE, and others in the Deccan, belong to Mahratta princes. The first is a large territory of the old Mogul province of Visiapore, and its rajah a descendant of Sivagee, the founder of the Mahratta Empire. The territories of Kolapore and Sawuntwaree are petty states, the former in the Deccan, south of Sattarah, and the latter in the Concan, to the north of Goa. The rajahs are employed in improving their respective countries, and are adopting many of the modern improvements in agriculture and the arts.

*Sattarah* is a strong hill fort; *Visiapore*, the "Palmyra of the Deccan," formerly the capital of a powerful kingdom, is an immense mass of ruins and of half decayed tombs, palaces, mosques, caravansaries, and other buildings. It is said to have contained in the days of its prosperity 984,000 houses and 1,600 mosques. The walls of the citadel and principal buildings are of hewn stone. The population at the present day only numbers a few thousands. *Punderpore* is a holy city, and much visited by pilgrims, who bring it prosperity and wealth. It is perhaps one of the most populous of the Mahratta towns.

4.—TRAVANCORE extends along the coast of Malabar, 140 miles northward from Cape Comorin, by about 40 in breadth. The whole territory is in the highest degree picturesque, consisting of hills, valleys, and mountains, watered by numerous streams, and covered with magnificent forests. Elephants, buffaloes, tigers, monkeys, and apes, abound in the woods. The produce consists of rice, pepper, betel, tobacco, nutmegs, and wild saffron, with maize and other grain. *Trivandrum*, the capital, is a populous town. *Angengo*, *Quilon*, and *Alipee*, are seaport towns on the coast, northward.

5.—COCHIN, a small territory, adjoins Travancore to the north, and consists

of a succession of narrow valleys watered by small streams, where rice is cultivated. The mountains are covered with forests, and the groves are studded with palms, jacks, mangoes, and plantains. The chief exports are pepper, cardamoms, teak-wood, sandal-wood, cordage, cassia, and fish-maws. *Cochin*, a large town, three or four miles in circuit, and formerly the capital of the Dutch possessions in India, contains now only a population of 10,000. It is well situated for commerce, and has great advantages for ship-building.

6.—**MYSORE**, a territory of considerable extent in the southern division of the table-land formed by the converging of the eastern and western Ghauts, was constituted a kingdom in 1799, in favor of the descendants of the ancient rajahs of Mysore, who had been dethroned by Hyder Ali. But his Highness having been guilty of misrule, was superseded in 1833, and his states are now administered by officers of the Madras Presidency. *Mysore* is the capital, *Seringapatam*, *Salem*, &c. are also important towns.

7.—**SIKIM** is a small principality in the hill country, between Nepaul and Bootan. *Sikim*, on the west side of the river Jamikuma, is the capital. Steamboats from Calcutta can reach the city within 50 miles by the river Teesta.

8.—The **KINGDOM OF OUDE** lies in the basin of the Ganges, to the north of Allahabad. The whole surface is flat, extremely fertile, well watered, and produces splendid crops of grain, with sugar, indigo, opium, and all the richest articles used in India. The kingdom is governed by the hereditary vizier of the Mogul Empire, who, in 1819, assumed the title of padishah or king, thereby renouncing his nominal dependence on the Mogul emperor; but the government has been long in disrepute, and the people are sunk in poverty and misery. The British have lately, or probably will soon take possession of the government.

*Lucknow*, the capital, on the right bank of the Goomtee, consists chiefly of narrow dirty streets, with mean clay houses, and abounds with beggars. There are, however, some fine streets, with handsome houses, and well-filled bazaars; and the king's palaces, the tombs, and principal mosques, display considerable splendor. Population, about 500,000. *Fyzabad*, the former capital, is still a thriving town; but *Oude*, or Ayodhya, the ancient capital of the demigod Rama, situated on the banks of the Gogra, is now in ruins. It is much resorted to by pilgrims, and is said to have been a large and splendid city. The other principal towns are *Beraytch*, *Bulram-pore*, *Tandeh*, *Bisova*, &c. &c.

9.—**BUNDELCUND** is an elevated country, to the south and south-west of Allahabad. Part of it is in the immediate territory of the British Government, and the remainder is divided among the petty princes of Rewah, Sumphur, Jhansi, Jaloun, Oorcha or Terhi, and Dutteah.

10.—**BHURTPORE** is a small state, to the west of Agra. *Bhurtpore*, the capital, is 34 miles west of Agra, and has a strong fortress, which several times defied the British power, but was taken in 1826.

11.—The **RAJAH OF DHOLPORE**, &c. acquired his possessions in 1804. His revenues amount to about £50,000 per annum. He is tributary, both to Scindia and the British. The capital is *Dholpore*, a considerable town,

about a mile from the left bank of the Chumbul, and 40 miles south-west of Agra.

12.—**BHOPAL** is a considerable territory in Malwah, extending 120 miles along the right bank of the Nerbuddah. The surface is very uneven, and full of jungle, but the soil is generally fertile. The dominant people are Patans. The state was constituted in its present extent in 1817. The principal towns are Bhopal, Islamnuggur, and Ashtah.

13.—**DHAR, DEWAS, RUTLAUM, SILANA, NURSINGHUR, AMJHEERA, &c.**, are also small principalities in Malwah, governed by rajahs. *Dhar* is an ancient city once containing 20,000 houses, but has now only about 5,000, which are surrounded by a mud wall. The rajah also possesses *Burseiah*, a town of 3,000 houses, 24 miles north of Bhopal.

14.—**HOLKAR**, one of the principal feudatories of the late Mahratta empire, lies chiefly in the valley of the Nerbuddah. *Indore*, a small town in Malwah, is the capital. The other principal places are: *Mhow, Mundlesir, Mhyser, Mundatta, Woon, &c.* *Maundoo*, the ancient capital of Malwah, 27 miles south-west of Mhow, is now completely deserted, but still contains numerous remains of fine buildings, overgrown with jungle.

15.—**BARODA**, also a feudatory of the Mahratta empire, is a kingdom of great extent on both sides of the Gulf of Cambay, including the peninsula of Kattiwar. The peninsula, however, does not belong to the Guicowar or King in absolute sovereignty, but is possessed by a great number of petty chiefs, which are tributary, and are kept at peace among themselves, by the king and the British.

*Baroda*, the capital, is a large and populous city with considerable trade, 12 miles east from the estuary of the Mhye. The other principal towns are: *Cambay*, at the head of the gulf, an ancient and renowned city, now much decayed, *Puttun-Sidhpore, Rhadunpore, Palhampore, and Deesa*, east of the Runn of Kutch, and about a dozen large towns on the peninsula. Many of these cities are very ancient, and contain the ruins of several extensive and fine buildings, &c. *Puttun-Sidhpore* was formerly the capital of Western India and the seat of a powerful empire, with an extensive commerce.

16.—**KUTCH** or **КАЧ'Н**, is a long narrow peninsula between the Gulf and Runn of Kutch. The products are very numerous and valuable, and consist of minerals and agricultural staples. The inhabitants are partly Brahminical Hindoos, and partly Moslems. The dominant class are the Jarejahs, who hold their lands of the rajah by military tenure, and have themselves numerous retainers called Grasias, who owe them immediate allegiance. There is also a class of warriors called Meyannahs, who were originally shepherds, but have become a fierce and warlike tribe noted as robbers and mercenaries. The mariners of Kutch are a fearless and enterprising race, and for centuries past have traded to the Red Sea, Africa, Ceylon and China. Their moallims or pilots are singularly intelligent and well informed. The condition of the people has considerably improved since they have been protected by the British from the despotism of their native princes.

*Bhooj*, the capital, is a large town of 30,000 inhabitants, surrounded with a strong, well-built wall. The streets are narrow, dirty, and scarcely passable for the herds of sacred bulls. The rajah's palace is a large white-stone building, decorated with beautiful carvings and fine fret work.—*Mandave*, the principal sea-port, lies on the south coast.

17.—**RAJPOOTANA, RAJWARA or RAJAHS'TAN**, is the name of a country of indefinite extent, situated between the Indus and the Ganges, and traversed diagonally by the Aravulli Mountains. The dominant people are Rajpoots, from whom it takes its name. The country, in its present dimensions, is divided among a number of rajahs, whose dominions are noted in the annexed tabular list:—

<i>States.</i>	<i>Area in Sq. miles</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Capitals.</i>	<i>Miles distant from Ajmere.</i>
ODIPORE .....	11,784 .....	1,200,000 .....	Oudipore .....	130 S. E.
JEYPORE .....	13,427 .....	1,350,000 .....	Jeypore .....	80 E. N. E.
JOUDPORE .....	34,132 .....	1,720,000 .....	Joudpore .....	80 W.
KOTAH .....	4,389 .....	450,000 .....	Kotah .....	120 S. E.
BHONDI .....	2,291 .....	230,000 .....	Bhondi .....	110 —
ALWAR .....	3,235 .....	325,000 .....	Alwar .....	146 N. E.
BIKANERE .....	18,060 .....	180,000 .....	Bikanere .....	125 N. W.
JEYSULMERE .....	9,779 .....	97,000 .....	Jeysulmere .....	200 W. by N.
KISHENGHUR .....	724 .....	72,000 .....	Kishenghur .....	18 N. E.
BANSWARA .....	1,440 .....	144,000 .....	Banswarra .....	200 S.
PERTAUBGHUR .....	1,457 .....	146,000 .....	Pertaubghur .....	170 —
DUNGARPORE .....	2,005 .....	200,000 .....	Dungarpore .....	183 S. S. W.
KEROLI .....	1,878 .....	187,000 .....	Keroli .....	160 E.
SIROHI .....	3,024 .....	300,009 .....	Sirohi .....	140 S. W.
TONK, SERONJ, &c. ....	1,633 .....	165,000 .....	Tonk .....	70 E. by S.

18.—**SINDE** is a large territory occupying the lower part of the Basin of the Indus. The population is mixed, being composed of Hindoos, Jauts, Belooches, and various other tribes of the adjacent countries. The Seids, or Sayyads (descendants of Mahomet) and Fakirs (religious vagabonds) are very numerous. The wealth of many families consists in cattle, and in the export of animal produce. Sindé formed till lately an independent state. The Ameers have long, and still resist the British, in consequence of which a continual war is waged in their territory. The ultimate fate of their country will be a subversion of the native powers, and annexation of the country to one of the Presidencies.

*Hydrabad*, the chief town, is situated on the eastern bank of the Indus, 120 miles from the sea, and contains 20,000 inhabitants. *Tatta*, the ancient capital, stands at the head of the delta of the Indus, 60 miles from the sea, and has 18,000 inhabitants. It was once a large and prosperous city, and is still celebrated for its manufactures of silk, cotton, and gold articles. *Kurachi* is the principal seaport of Sindé. *Shikarpore* is a very large town, 15 miles west from the Indus, and chiefly inhabited by Hindoo bankers and merchants, who have commercial connections all over the East.

19.—**DAOUDPOOTRAS**, which extends along the left bank of the Indus and the Gharra for more than 300 miles, is only a portion of the Great Desert, and the only cultivable part of the country is that within reach of irrigation. The Nabob is nominally independent, but under the protection of the British.

*Bahawulpore*, the capital, is a large commercial town, and enjoys great reputation for its silk manufactures. Population, 24,000. *Ahmedpore*, *Darawal*, *Ooch*, &c. are also celebrated places.

20.—The **PROTECTED SEIKH** and other states, on the left bank of the Sutlej, are about 150 in number. They are being gradually swallowed up by the British, and in a few more years their names will be known only as representative of things that were.

21.—The **KINGDOM OF LAHORE**. (See p. 511.)

## THE INDEPENDENT STATES.

THE independent states of Hindoostan are Maharajah Scindia in Central India; the Punjaub or Kingdom of Lahore, the Kingdom of Nepaul and Bhotan.

1.—The **MAHARAJAH SCINDIA**, one of the principal feudatories of the late Mahratta empire, possesses a large territory, which extends through the middle of Hindoostan, from near Baroda, to the neighborhood of Agra, a distance of 450 miles. The present limits of the territory were fixed in 1817. The revenue is estimated at 140 lacs of rupees, (\$6,700,000.) The army consists of 14,000 infantry, 10,000 cavalry, and 250 pieces of cannon. The rajah is bound to aid the British when required with a contingent of 5,000 men.

*Gwalior*, the capital, is a large town of 50,000 inhabitants, 80 miles south of Agra, and has a celebrated fortress. *Oujein*, which holds a high rank among the holy cities of India, is situated in Malwah. It is of the most remote antiquity, and is taken by Hindoo geographers and astronomers as their first meridian. *Mehidpore*, *Burhanpore*, *Hindia*, *Champanere*, &c., are also celebrated places.

2.—The Kingdom of **LAHORE**, established during the present century by an enterprising Sikh chieftain, Rungeet Singh, who died in 1839, is situated in the north-west part of India, including all the country between the Indus and Sutlej, and from the crests of the Himalayas to the borders of Sinde. The dominant people are the Sikhs, who form, however, no more than about one-seventh part of the total population. Their original country is the peninsula between the Ravee and the Sutlej. The rest of the population of the kingdom consists of Brahminical Hindoos, Affghans, Jauts, and various other Moslem tribes. The army amounts to some 100,000 men of all arms, disciplined after the European manner, and not unfrequently officered by Frenchmen and other foreigners. It has proved very troublesome to the British, and that government seems to have determined upon its destruction.

*Lahore*, the capital, stands on the left bank of the Ravee, and is about 3 miles in circuit, being surrounded by a brick wall and ditch with 12 gates and as many semi-circular outworks. Population, 80,000. It contains several splendid mosques and the tombs of several of the Mogul emperors. *Umritser* is a large town, eight miles in circumference, and surrounded by a mud wall faced with brick. During the Sikh confederacy it was the federal capital, as it still is the principal seat of their religion. *Moultan* is one of the most ancient cities of India, and is now highly celebrated for its silk manufactures. It was reduced by the British early in 1849. *Cashmere*, a large city of 40,000 inhabitants, is now decayed, has narrow dirty streets, and is situated nearly in the valley of the same name, about 5,800 feet above the level of the sea. The Cashmereans have suffered much from their Sikh rulers; and the population of the valley, which was once 800,000, is now scarcely one-eighth that number.

3.—The Kingdom of **NEPAUL** is situated almost entirely within the hill country between the Sub-Himalayas and the crest of the main chain, extending from the river Kali to the borders of Sikim, a distance of 470 miles, with a breadth of about 100. It consists of a number of parallel belts of hills and valleys clothed in magnificent forests and a luxuriant agricultural

swathe. The country was formerly possessed by numerous independent rajahs, but these have all been reduced by one more enterprising than his brothers. The king has a regular army. The people are chiefly of the Tartar or Mongolian family, divided into numerous tribes, but they are in some cases considerably mixed with Hindoo blood, and profess the Brahminical faith, though some still are Buddhists.

*Catmandoo*, the capital, is a small town in an elevated valley, which also contains several others of considerable importance and population. *Lahita-Patan* has 24,000 inhabitants.

4.—**BHUTAN**, situated to the east of Nepaul and Sikim, is about 200 miles in length and 90 in breadth. It is a mountainous country, cold and rugged. The productions of the country are those of northern India generally. The sovereignty is vested in the Dhurm-rajah, a spiritual prince, *who never dies*; but the government of the country is exercised by the Deb-rajah, who holds office for three years, and is checked or assisted by a council. The people seem to belong to the Mongol stock. They are very quiet, inoffensive and industrious, but the population is small and the villages few and scattered. The palaces and castles are the only places well inhabited, being occupied by idle priests and their followers, who live at the expense of the poor cultivators. The people are licentious and filthy. The Bhoteas are classed into laborers, priests, and grandees. Perhaps the most numerous, and certainly the most pernicious class, is that of the gylongs or priests. Their chief duty is to be idle, to live at the expense of the country, to tell their beads and mutter prayers. Their religion consists in external forms; they are very superstitious, believing in hosts of spirits, whose supposed abodes they dare not pass without numerous incantations. The Bhoteas have no genius for war. Many of their laws and customs have been copied from the Chinese, and they are equally scrupulous with their celestial neighbors in guarding against the entrance of foreigners into their country. The people are chiefly employed in agriculture; many of them cultivate one farm in the mountains in summer, and another in the lowlands in winter. Their commerce is trifling, and their political relations very limited. They are tributary indirectly to Lassa, and now directly to China. The summer capital is *Tassisudon*, which in winter, on account of the cold, is deserted for *Dosen* or Punukha.

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## OTHER POSSESSIONS OF FOREIGN NATIONS.

### 1.—*The French Possessions.*

THE possessions of the French in India consist of several detached portions, but form the single government of **PONDICHERY**. They are arranged into five districts, viz :

**PONDICHERY** and **KARIKAL**, in the Carnatic; **YANAON**, in the Northern Circars; **CHANDERNAGORE**, in Bengal, and **MAHE**, in Malabar.

*Pondichery*, the capital, 85 miles south by west of Madras, is a fine city laid out in the European style, with wide and regular streets, and has about 40,000 inhabitants. It has a college and several schools, a mont de pieté and a botanic garden. In the vicinity indigo, sugar-cane and the mulberry are cultivated. It has no harbor, but a tolerable roadstead.

*Mahé* is a well-built town in the small district of the same name, and very salubrious.

### 2.—*The Danish Possessions.*

The Danish Territory consists of the two small establishments of **TRANQUEBAR**, on the Coromandel coast, and **SERAMPORE**, in Bengal.

*Tranquebar*, on the coast of the delta of the Cauvery, is a large town of 12,000 inhabitants, and carries on a considerable trade. The Danes pay for Tranquebar and its territory an annual rent of 2,000 sicca rupees (\$1,000,) to the rajah of Tanjore.

*Serampore* is a pretty town, of 13,000 inhabitants, on the right bank of the Hoogly, opposite Barrackpore. It is the residence of the governor-general of Danish India, and also of the Baptist missionaries, who have established a printing-press, and issued from it translations of the Bible into most of the languages of India. It is, however, chiefly remarkable as the sanctuary of Calcutta, the place to which all the malefactors and bankrupts retire to avoid the consequences of the law.

### 3.—*The Portuguese Possessions.*

Portuguese India is now reduced to the territory of **GOA**, on the west coast, between Concan and Canara; **DAMAUN**, in Gujrat, and the **ISLAND OF DIU**, on the west coast of Kattiwar.

**GOA** consists of two provinces, *Salsette* and *Bardes*, with several islands, measuring altogether along the coast about 60 miles, with a breadth varying from 15 to 30. *Goa*, once the splendid capital of the wide dominions of Portugal in Asia, is now deserted, fallen to ruins, and overgrown with jungle. The cathedral, however, and several other churches, are still in good preservation; but the whole population, including monks, nuns, priests and other church servants, amounts only to a few hundreds, instead of 200,000, which the city once contained. The seat of government is now at *Pangi*, called also *Villa Nova de Goa*, six miles nearer the sea. The archbishop of Goa takes the title of Primate of India, and resides at San Pedro, three miles from Pangi. The river of Goa forms a harbor scarcely inferior to that of Bombay. *Mergaon*, in Salsette, and *Marpuca*, in Bardes, are considerable towns, with each about 10,000 inhabitants.

*Damaun* is a seaport in Gujrat, on a small river 82 miles north of Bombay. Damaun contains several churches and convents and a Parsee temple, in which the sacred fire, brought from Persia 1,200 years ago, has been preserved. The town is noted for its docks and ship-building.

*Diu* is a small town and fort now fallen to decay, at the east end of the island of the same name. The ports of these possessions were declared free in 1841, since which time goods have been deposited on the payment of a duty of one per cent. and no export duties are levied on such if re-shipped.

## THE ISLAND OF CEYLON.

(*Singhala, Lanka, Serendib or Taprobane.*)

**CEYLON**, the most magnificent island on the face of the globe, is situated at the western entrance of the Bay of Bengal, being separated from the continent by the Gulf of Manaar, and on the south and east its beautiful shores are laved by the Indian Ocean. Its area is 24,664 square miles.

The interior of the island is formed of ranges of high mountains, in general not approaching nearer to the sea than 40 miles, with a belt of rich



alluvial earth nearly surrounding the island, and well watered by numerous rivers and streams. A picturesque table-land occupies the southern centre, and thence towards the coast is a continuous range of low hills and elevated flat land, extending nearly to the sea-shore. To the west the country is flat, and on the northern shore broken into verdant rocky islets, and a peninsula named Jafnapatam. The lofty central division of the island varies in elevation above the level of the sea from 1,000 to 4,000 feet, but the range of the table-land may be estimated at from 2,000 to 3,000 feet, extending in length 67 miles by 50 miles wide. From this elevated region arise some conical mountains from 2,000 to 3,000 feet higher. The mountains run in general in continuous chains, with the most lovely valleys the sun ever shone on between them. The hills are clothed to the very summits with gigantic forests, from which issue magnificent cascades and foaming cataracts, that form in the valleys placid waters and babbling brooks, fringed with turfy banks and all the beautiful verdure of the tropics.

The geological formations of Ceylon are generally of the primitive rocks, and the only minerals hitherto found are iron and manganese; but the island has long been famed for its precious stones, and the pearl fishery of the Gulf of Manaar produces great abundance of that valued gem. The vegetable productions are not less valuable. The cinnamon tree grows wild as well as in a cultivated state, and the cocoa-nut, bread-fruit and jack-fruit trees supply the natives with an inexhaustible food. Cotton, sugar-cane, tobacco and coffee grow luxuriantly and without care. The pepper vine grows wild over all the island, and enchanting groves of a thousand spices surround the villages in every part. Every species of European vegetable flourishes here as if in its native soil. Nor is the animal kingdom less rich; earth, air and water are instinct with life. Elephants, tigers, buffaloes, deer and elks roam at large. There is, in short, the greatest abundance of fishes, animals and fowls; and taken altogether, Ceylon is one of the most luxuriantly productive and most highly favored regions on the face of the globe.

The population is made up of *Singalese*, who occupy Kandi and the south and south-west coasts; *Malabars* or Hindoos, who occupy the north and east coasts; *Moors* or Arabs, who are dispersed all over the island; and *Veddas*, the aborigines of the island, who are said to be found in a savage state in the great forests. There are also Malays, Moormen, Caffres, and Javanese, a few Chinese and Parsee traders, and many descendants of the Portuguese, Dutch and English mixed with native blood. The Singalese are the most numerous. In religion they are Buddhists. The census of 1835 gave a total of 1,250,000.

Ceylon is now entirely in possession of the British. The government is under the charge of a governor, appointed by the crown, and assisted by two councils, the one legislative and the other executive, and for the administration of justice courts co-ordinate with those of the mother country have been established. The island is divided into five provinces, named the Eastern, Western, Northern, Southern, and Central, and each of these are divided into districts. In each province there is an "agent," besides assistants, who are stationed in the various districts. These functionaries administer the affairs of the government, and also act as magistrates.

Few places in the world have received so large a share of missionary aid as this island, and the results have not disappointed the hopes of the Christian. The American missions have been eminently successful; and the moral character of the people has already been raised very perceptibly by the extension of education, combined with religious training.

The mythological history of Ceylon extends backward to the conquest of Lanka, which was effected by the Hindoo demi-god Rama, about 23 centuries before Christ; but the authentic history commences only with the year 543 B. C., when Vijeya, a Hindoo of the Solar race, conquered the island, and established a dynasty which continued to exist uninterruptedly till A. D. 1815, when the last of 165 Singalese kings was dethroned by the British government. The family, however, of Vijeya's descendants had become extinct in 1739; the subsequent kings were only connected by marriage with the Solar race; and from an early period of the 16th century their dominion was restricted to the interior of the island by the Portuguese and Dutch, who were finally succeeded by the British in 1796. It has been usually asserted by European travellers and residents in Ceylon, that there were no authentic historical records; but since the British government acquired complete possession and ascendancy in the island, a multitude of records have come to light, from which it is possible to compile a perfectly authentic history of the kings of the Solar dynasty, or from the year 543 B. C. to the present day. The early history is only traditional or mythic, and during the long period that elapsed between Rama's conquest and the arrival of Vijeya is very obscure, or almost a blank.—(*Turnour's Epitome of Singalese History.*)

*Colombo*, the capital of the island, is situated on the south-west coast, and is defended by a strong fort mounting 300 heavy cannon. The town is handsome, and divided into four parts by two broad streets. The chief traffic consists in cinnamon, pepper, &c. *Kandi*, in the interior, formerly the residence of the native kings, is an inferior town, but is occasionally the residence of the governor, and is considered as the interior capital. *Trincomalee*, *Dondra*, &c., are considerable villages. There are also a large number of villages which are frequently mentioned in missionary reports, but these from a want of space we are obliged to omit.

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## THE MALDIVE AND LACADIVE ISLANDS.

THESE islands lie on the west and south-west of the Peninsula of Hindoostan. The MALDIVES are a chain of numberless coral isles and reefs, extending nearly 540 miles from north to south, about 200 miles to the south-west of Cape Comorin, between 7° N. and 40' S. latitude, and between 72° 48' and 73° 48' east longitude. They are divided into 17 groups, each of which is surrounded by a wall of coral, and have navigable channels between them. The islands are but those portions of the coral banks, which have become covered with soil and vegetation. All the larger islands are thickly clothed with wood, but the greater number are mere rocks, rocky shoals, and sand-banks, flooded at high water. The islands are fertile, and afford many of the necessaries and luxuries of life. Throughout the islands there are no connected towns, the houses being built separately, each with its own garden and grounds. A great trade is carried on among them, each island having something peculiar to itself. The Maldives also trade with India. The people are Mahomedans, and are described as a mild, inoffensive race, and very hospitable. They are all under the dominion of one chief, who, by the aid of viceroys, rules over all the groups of the islands. Twice a year an embassy arrives at Point de Galle, in Ceylon, to render

homage to the British government. The LACADIVES are a cluster of 17 islands, due west of Malabar, between  $10^{\circ}$  and  $12^{\circ}$  N. latitude, and  $72^{\circ}$  and  $74^{\circ}$  E. longitude. Only eight are inhabited, and the total population is only 6,000. They are of like formation with the Maldives, but produce little of commercial value. South of the Maldives is situated the CHAGOS GROUPE, consisting generally of coral rocks and shoals, and quite uninhabitable, and worthless for any purpose whatever. They are merely worth noticing as dangers to be avoided by the mariner.

## FURTHER INDIA.

### (INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES.—CHIN-INDIA.)

THIS extensive region lies to the south-east of Hindoostan, and south-west of China, is possessed by several distinct nations, and divided politically into various independent states and foreign settlements. It forms one geographical region, and as such we shall first describe its general physical features, and then proceed to the particular description of the countries which it comprehends.

This region forms a large peninsula, projecting from the borders of India and China southwards into the Indian Ocean, and terminates in the long narrow promontory of Malacca. The surface is occupied with several ranges of mountains, which extend from north to south, forming between them wide valleys and maritime lowlands, which are drained and watered by large rivers, the remote sources of which are found in the mountain regions between India and China. The principal rivers are the Irawaddy, Saluen or Thaluen, Meinam, and May-kuang or river of Cambodia, all flowing in a general direction, from north to south, and emptying into the gulfs and bays of the southern coast. The shores are very irregular, and being lined with innumerable small islands, some of them very small, the adjacent seas are difficult to navigate. The only islands which deserve particular notice are Tantalem, Junk-ceylon, and Penang. TANTALEM lies at the south-west side of the Gulf of Siam, is about 70 miles in length, and is separated from the mainland by a narrow channel, which, at the northern end, is bare at low water. No part of it is cultivated or inhabited except that which contains a portion of the town of Sungeora. JUNK-CEYLON lies off the western coast of the peninsula, and is the most densely populated portion of this part of the Siamese territory. The island is of granite formation, and possesses very rich lead mines. It is nearly 40 miles long by 12 or 15 broad, and is separated from the continent by a very narrow and shallow channel. PENANG, belonging to the British, lies south of Junk-ceylon.

With the exception of the Malays, who inhabit the southern promontory which bears their name; and the negro tribes who inhabit the interior of the same narrow tract, the whole of this extensive region is peopled by many nations of the same physical type, forming a sort of intermediate variety between the Mongol and Malay races, but more nearly resembling the former. They are in general shorter than either the Chinese or Hin-

doos; they are robust, active, and well-proportioned, but not so graceful as their neighbors of the west; their complexion is a light brown; but in this there is great diversity. The face is flat, with high cheek-bones; the hair abundant, black, lank and coarse, but the beard is scanty; and their language exhibits the same simplicity, poverty and deficiency with the monosyllabic languages of China and Thibet. Three distinct languages prevail amongst them: the Birmese, which is spoken in Ava and Arracan; the Siamese, in Siam and Lao; and the Anamese, in Tonquin and Cochin-China. Pegu, however, is said to have an original dialect, called the Mon, of which too little is known to determine its relation to the others. The sacred language of Birmah is the Pali—the Birmese have also borrowed the Sanscrit alphabet; their legal code is one of the commentaries upon the institutes of Menu; and in these and some other respects they discover their affinity to the Hindoos; while the Siamese, Anamese, and Peguans, bear a more strongly-marked resemblance to the Chinese.

The governments of all the native states are pure despotisms. Even the names of their emperors must not be pronounced during their lives, under pain of death; and these dread names are only confided to a small number of favorite courtiers. In Birmah, Siam, and Anam, every man above twenty years of age, except priests and public functionaries, is obliged to devote not less than every third year of his life to the public service, either as a soldier or as laborer. Emigration is considered as a treasonable offence, and equivalent to a theft of the prince's property. There exists, however, throughout the country, in spite of these despotic acts, a great degree of order and regularity. Civil and criminal justice is administered with remarkable decency, and the enjoyment of life and property is more secure than in other Asiatic states. The administrative forms among the Birmese and Siamese are of interminable slowness; but in Cochin-China the activity of the government is equally vigorous and rapid. The emperors of Anam and Siam acknowledge themselves vassals of China, and as such pay tribute to the emperor; but this is merely formal, for China has never interfered in the affairs of either government. The savage tribes live under their respective chiefs, who are more or less oppressive; but some of them enjoy a considerable degree of liberty.

The people have made but little progress in the useful or fine arts. They excel, nevertheless, in gilding; in a kind of varnished work, ornamented with rich mosaic; in mother-of-pearl; idols, from the smallest size to the most colossal; in certain kinds of gold and silver work; in common pottery, and in the building of ships and boats. The Cochin-Chinese are adepts in naval architecture and navigation; and in everything pertaining to the military art, in which they have been encouraged by the French. In all other respects they are inferior; they cannot make cotton cloths, like the Hindoos; porcelain, like the Japanese; or silk, like the Chinese. They, however, make coarse cotton cloths for their own use; also light silk stuffs, which formerly, in the infancy of European manufactures, were eagerly sought for in the markets. The large towns are the principal seats of industry. In Birmah agriculture is chiefly conducted by the Karyan, the Khyan, and other tribes, who do not congregate in towns and some of whom have not even ceased to be nomadic.

The commerce of this region has of late years been rapidly developing itself, and its connection with foreign states has become much closer than

formerly. The commerce of Siam has long been monopolized by the Chinese, who are the merchants, navigators and seamen, of the empire; 140 or 150 junks, of 35,000 or 40,000 tons burden, sail yearly to China; and 40 or 50 to Sincapore, which is also frequented by junks from Cochinchina. Besides the commerce carried on in Birmah by European ships, the Birman boats trade to a considerable extent along the coast of Arracan and Calcutta. Commerce of some importance is also carried on by land between the British and Birman territories, between Birmah and China, and between China and Tonquin. But with Siam the Birmese have no commercial relations; an implacable hatred and continual warfare exists between the two states. Their respective frontiers have the appearance of a desert, and slavery awaits the unfortunate adventurer who passes his own limits, and has the misfortune to fall into the snares which these people respectively lay for each other. The principal articles of export are cotton, silk, tea, hard woods, gums, drugs, sugar, oil, ivory, pepper, *bird's-nests*, precious stones, iron, and varnished works. The imports consist of European and Chinese manufactures generally, and the agricultural products of China and other native states. The inland trading-places are Ava, Prome, and Bhamo, in Birmah; and Ketscho, in Anam. The maritime ports are Sincapore, Georgetown, Ragoon, Bankok, Chantibou, Saigon, Huehan or Faifo, and Touron or Hansan.

Further India may be divided into six political regions, the names, extent and population of which are exhibited in the annexed table :

<i>States.</i>	<i>Area in Sq. Miles.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Capitals.</i>
BIRMAH OR THE BIRMESE EMPIRE.....	200,000.....	8,000,000.....	Ava.....150,000
KINGDOM OF SIAM.....	220,000.....	2,790,000.....	Bankok.....100,000
EMPIRE OF ANAM.....	120,000.....	10,000,000.....	Hue.....30,000
COUNTRY OF THE LAOS.....	230,000.....	2,800,000.....	Zemmai.....25,000
BRITISH TERRITORIES.....	35,160.....	242,000.....	Amherst.....1,000
MALACCA, OR THE MALAY STATES.....	72,000.....	200,000.....	—.....—
	927,160.....	24,032,00	

### BIRMAH, OR THE BIRMESE EMPIRE.

THIS country lies between  $15^{\circ} 45'$  and  $27^{\circ} 20'$  north latitude, and between  $93^{\circ}$  and  $99^{\circ}$  east longitude, being about 800 miles in length, and 300 in breadth, and containing an area of about 200,000 square miles. The southern portions of the country are low and champagne, the middle region elevated and hilly, and further north it is decidedly mountainous. It is watered by the Saluen, Setang, Irawaddy, and Kyen-duen, all of which have a southerly course, marking the character of the country as a plain, inclined from north to south. Birmah has a sea-coast of about 240 miles, extending from Cape Negrais to the mouth of the Saluen. It contains a large number of lakes, but the most extensive are situated at the north.

Geologically, Birmah may be divided into three regions, viz. the low alluvial tract of the south, the secondary and tertiary formations, between  $18^{\circ}$  and  $22^{\circ}$ , and the primary mountain district of Ava on the north. The first is remarkably destitute of minerals; but the two last contain limestone, marble, gems, iron, gold, silver, copper, tin, lead, antimony, amber, coal, petroleum, nitre, natron, and salt. The petroleum is used everywhere by

the Burmese, in place of oil, for their lamps. The forests furnish a number of valuable woods and gums. Birman agriculture embraces rice, maize, millet, wheat, pulse, palms, sugar-canes, tobacco, cotton, and indigo. Rice is the great object of industry throughout the kingdom. The useful animals domesticated are the ox, the buffalo, the horse, and the elephant. Wild animals and game are numerous. The most remarkable quadrupeds are the elephant, rhinoceros, hog, deer, ox, buffalo, bear, otter, tiger, leopard, wild and civet cats, &c.

Birmah is inhabited by many distinct nations and tribes, of whom so many as eighteen have been enumerated. The most considerable of these are the Burmese Proper, the Peguans, the Shans, the Kathey, the Zabaining, the Kareans, the Kyans, the Ys, and the Lawa, which are respectively numerous and civilized, nearly in the order in which they are mentioned. Though differing in language, customs, and religion, they have the same physical type, which is common to all the tribes which possess the country between Hindoostan and China. The practice of tattooing obtains among the Burmese and Talains. With respect to dress the Burmese are well and not unbecomingly clad, but much of the body is left naked. The priests wear no hair on their heads, and are clad in a yellow garb, which for the laity to assume would be considered as nothing less than sacrilege: so peculiarly sacred indeed is this color, that it is not unfrequent to see a Burmese pay his devotions to an old garment of a priest hung out to dry, after undergoing a washing. A superficial education is general, and there is probably not more than one man in ten who is unable to read, an accomplishment indeed which is required by their religion. Science, however, is in its lowest state of development, and alchymy usurps the place of practical knowledge. Among the Burmese there may be said to exist seven classes of society, distinguished by their privileges and employments, viz.: the royal family, the public officers, the priesthood, the merchants or "rich men," the cultivators and laborers, slaves and outcasts. The only hereditary class are the Thaubwas, the tributary princes of the subjugated countries. The rest of the chief officers are appointed and dismissed at pleasure. Any subject, not a slave or outcast, may aspire to the first offices. The priests, called Phungyi or Ra-han, are bound to a rigid celibacy, and are interdicted from intermeddling in politics and state affairs. As a body they are virtuous, and extremely simple in their mode of life. The priests form an important and numerous order, and along with them may be classed the Thi-la-shau or nuns, who are generally *old women*. The temples and monasteries are splendid structures, being covered profusely with carvings and paintings, varnished and gilded, but the materials consist principally of brick and mortar.

The Burmese Empire consists of two great divisions—**PEGU**, which comprises all the sea-coast and the mouths of the rivers; and **AVA**, or Birmah Proper, which comprehends the upper country, and is the seat of the dominant people. For administrative purposes the empire is divided into provinces or viceroyalties, of very variable extent. The most frequent civil division appears to be that into "myos" or townships, which are reckoned to amount to 4,600. The number of cities, towns, and villages, together, does not exceed thirty or forty.

**AVA**, (Angwa, Awa, Ratnapoora,) the capital, stands on the left bank of the Irawaddy, and is surrounded by a brick wall  $15\frac{1}{2}$  feet high, 10 feet

thick, and  $5\frac{1}{2}$  miles in circuit. The houses are generally mere huts, thatched with grass. Some of the dwellings of the chiefs are of wood, and tiled, and there are probably not more than half a dozen of brick or stone. The town has many temples, the tall, white and gilded towers of which give, in a distant view, a splendid and imposing appearance. The capital is not confined to Ava alone, but includes Seraing, on the opposite bank of the river, and Amarapura, with large districts attached to each, making together 288 square miles. The whole was levelled by a tremendous earthquake on the 28th March, 1839; but comparatively few people perished, their safety being owing to their living chiefly in huts and wooden houses. Population of the whole capital, 354,200.

RAGOON stands on the north bank of the eastern branch of the Irawaddy, 25 miles from the sea. It is the chief port of Birmah. About two miles from the river is the great temple of Shwe-Dagong, of the shape of a speaking trumpet standing on its base, which is built of brick, and richly gilt all over. Its height is about 278 feet, and it is really a noble object. This temple is the most famous religious edifice in the empire, a celebrity which it owes to the legend which supposes it to contain *eight true hairs* of Gautama, brought as a trophy from Western India many centuries ago by two merchants. It is in fact what is not common in this country, a place of pilgrimage, and is frequented by many strangers. Population about 12,000. About 15 miles east is SYRIAM, formerly one of the chief ports of Pegu, and the seat of a great trade before its harbor was shut up by its Birmese conquerors.

PEGU, the ancient capital of the country when a separate kingdom, is nearly 60 miles further north, but is now almost entirely deserted. It contains the famous temple of Shoemadoo, or the Golden Supreme, a structure of the same kind as the Shwe-dagong, and 331 feet high. PROME, (Pri,) stands on the left bank of the Irawaddy, about 155 miles N. N. W. of Ragoon, is a very ancient city, having been founded according to the Birmese, 443 years B. C. It is a thriving place, and has a population of 8,000. TANGO, or Tanou, is also said to be a place of great traffic and population. BASSEIN is a port on the left bank of the western branch of the Irawaddy, 70 miles from the ocean. MARTABAN, on the north bank of the Saluen, is an old town, and the houses generally built on posts erected in the ground. It has many monasteries, and several temples. BHAMO, on the Irawaddy, 180 miles N. N. E. of Ava, contains about 14,000 inhabitants, many of whom are Chinese. The surrounding country is one of the most prosperous and wealthy portions of the empire, and a great trade is carried on with China. MO-GOUNG, a large fortified city, on the Irawaddy, about latitude  $25^{\circ} 20' N.$ , is chiefly inhabited by Shyans, Chinese, and Singphos. In the vicinity are famous amber mines, which attract merchants from Yunnan, Munipore, and other places.

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## THE KINGDOM OF SIAM.

(THAI, OR THE FREE COUNTRY !)

THIS kingdom is composed of Siam Proper, a portion of the country of Laos, a part of Cambodia, and the Malay States of Quedah, Patani, and Ligor. It is situated between  $5^{\circ}$  and  $29^{\circ}$  N. latitude, and  $97^{\circ}$  and  $105^{\circ}$

E. longitude; measuring about 900 miles in length, and from 50 to 400 in breadth.

The greater portion of the country is mountainous, but it contains also valleys, and near Bangkok a rich alluvial plain, watered by the Meinam. The soil is fertile, yielding in abundance fruits, dye-woods, medicinal gums, and timber; but it is badly cultivated, and thinly inhabited. The coast on the Gulf of Siam is lined with many small islands, and that on the Bay of Bengal, extending in length 260 miles, includes the islands of Junk-Ceylon, Panjang, Langkawi, and Boutung. Siam Proper consists of the valley of the Meinam, which at the southern extremity does not exceed 60 miles broad, but it extends inland about 360 miles, and is bounded on both sides by high mountains. The climate and natural productions are much the same as those of Birmah.

The government is a despotism of the most absolute kind. The name of the sovereign is confined only to a few individuals; in public he is mentioned as the "sacred lord of heads," "sacred lord of lives," "the owner of all," "lord of the white elephant," "most exalted lord," infallible and infinitely powerful. Even the members of his body are spoken of in terms of adulation; everything belonging to or attached to his person is styled golden; to visit him is to approach to his magnificent majesty's golden feet, to speak to his golden ear, &c. The country is divided into districts, each of which is governed by a minister appointed by the king, aided by a governor and other officers, and the more distant provinces are placed under viceroys or rajahs. There appears to be no written law. All the people, except foreigners, are virtually slaves, and are obliged to give one year out of every three to the public works.

The religion of Siam is Buddhism, and the talapoins or priests are said to amount to 10,000. The services are read in the Pali language, which, however, is not understood by the people, and, indeed, scarcely by the priests themselves. But the most curious of their customs is that every Siamese must be a priest for at least three months of his life. They may quit when their term expires, but if they assume the yellow robe a second time they must wear it for life. The hierarchy has much similarity in its organization to that of the Catholic Church. They have a supreme chief like the pope, who has under him various priests corresponding to cardinals, archbishops, bishops, and other dignitaries. The "wats" or temples are numerous and costly, many of them indeed magnificent. They are the residences of the priests, and the places of education for all male Siamese.

The Siamese belong to the Mongol race, and exhibit all the distinguishing features of that great division of the human family, physical and moral. Though active they are not warlike; they possess an inordinate self-esteem, which places them above all nations except the Chinese, whom they acknowledge as superiors, and to whom they have sometimes paid tribute, and the Birmese, whom they rank as their equals. All their superfluous wealth they devote to their temples, in order to secure the salvation of their souls. They have many vices; but they have also one cardinal virtue, filial affection, which is maintained through life with scrupulous exactness. The son never stands in the presence of his parents, nor takes a seat on a level with his father. Even his magnificent majesty humbles himself once a month, and appears before his mother on his knees



and elbows. The Queen-dowager, (when there is one,) and the Talapoin Pope, are the only two individuals in Siam who have no superiors.

BANKOK, the capital, is situated on the Meinam, about 20 miles from the sea. It is irregular in plan, and everywhere intersected by canals; the streets are narrow and filthy; the houses are only bamboo huts, but there are several richly gilt temples, and the palaces of the king, and his gardens, are large buildings in the Chinese style. Many of the people live in large boats ranged along the sides of the river and canals. Bangkok is the principal seat of commerce. AYUTHIA, properly Si-yo-thi-ya, also named Siam, the ancient capital, stands on an island of the Meinam, above Bangkok, and is said to be nearly as populous. PRABAT, 160 miles N. by E. of Bangkok, contains *an impression of Buddha's foot in a rock*, which is the grand object of pilgrimage among the Siamese. *Paknam, Chantibon, Ligor*, and *Sungora*, are considerable towns. The district of Chantibon, and of the neighboring town of Tungyai are the proper country of the people called "Chong," and the only part of the kingdom which produces black pepper.

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### THE EMPIRE OF ANAM.

THE components of this empire are "Tonquin," or Anam proper, Cochin-China, the eastern and southern parts of Cambodia, and several islands in the Chinese Sea, along which it extends upwards of 1,200 miles. It lies between  $8^{\circ} 40'$  and  $23^{\circ} 20'$  N. latitude, and between  $105^{\circ}$  and  $109^{\circ}$  E. longitude, being bounded on the north by the Chinese provinces of Kwangtung, Kwang-si and Yun-nan; on the west by Laos and Siam; and on the south and east by the ocean.

The country is naturally divided into two long narrow strips by a range of mountains which extends in a direction parallel to the coast, from the borders of China to the mouth of the May-Kuang; Tonquin and Cochin-China being to the east of the range, and Cambodia to the west. CAMBODIA occupies the lower part of the valley of the May-Kuang, with the alluvial plain or delta at its mouth, and a small portion of the coast of the Gulf of Siam. It is said to be a fertile champaign country, but no geographical details respecting it are known. COCHIN-CHINA consists of a long, narrow strip of land, extending more than 600 miles along the Chinese Sea, but nowhere exceeds 150 in breadth. It is a series of small transverse valleys divided by so many spurs from the long range of mountains which forms its western boundaries. The coast is beautiful and grand; the shore is indented with numerous bays, and the mountains which rise several thousand feet in height are broken into numerous valleys and ravines. TONQUIN expands to a much greater width than Cochin-China, and consists chiefly of a large alluvial plain watered by the Sang-Koi and other rivers. It is the only part of the empire that is rich in minerals, and produces large quantities of gold, silver, copper and iron.

The climate, soil and productions vary in each of these divisions. The climate is generally fine and healthy, the heat being tempered by the sea-breeze. In Cambodia, the seasons follow the same course as in Malabar, Bengal, &c.; in Cochin-China the seasons are reversed, the dry season

prevailing during the south-west, and the wet season during the north-east monsoons; a change which is produced by the lofty mountain border which intercepts the moisture. In Tonquin the seasons are the same as in Cambodia, and in both the heat and cold are excessive. At Hue the greatest summer heat is  $103^{\circ}$  in the shade, and the greatest cold of winter  $57^{\circ}$  Fahr. The forests produce every variety of scented woods and most of the products of British India. Tea also grows between  $10^{\circ}$  and  $16^{\circ}$  N. latitude. Cambodia produces gamboge, cardamoms, anise-seed, areca, indigo, pepper, sugar-cane, &c. Tonquin yields many kinds of varnish trees, areca, palms, &c. Cotton, rice and mulberry are almost universal. There is also a great variety of fine fruits, gingers and spices. The principal animals are the elephant, rhinoceros, tiger, leopard, buffalo, bear, horse, deer, goat, monkey, baboon, dog, cat, &c.; also peacocks, parrots, and a variety of other birds of the richest plumage, curlews, plovers and aquatic birds of all kinds. Alligators infest the large rivers; hooded snakes and several other noxious reptiles infest the land; the seas and rivers abound with fish, and the whole country is swarming with mosquitos and a thousand species of insect life.

The people are of several races. The Tonquinese and Cochin-Chinese are a short, squat and ill-favored race, in features nearly resembling the Malays. Their countenances exhibit, however, an air of cheerfulness and good humor. They are much in the same state of civilization and comfort as their neighbors. The Cambodians are a distinct race, and speak a language unlike any of their neighbors; but in civilization, customs, religion, &c., they resemble the Siamese. Besides these, there are some Anamese and other races, and many Malays, Chinese and Portuguese. The almost universal religion is a species of Buddhism intermixed with the traditions and tenets of the Hindoos, Chinese, &c. Politically, however, the empire contains but two classes—the people, and the nobility or mandarins. Advancement is open to all; and lately all the great mandarins, chiefs of the five great columns of the empire, were common soldiers.

The government exhibits despotism in its worst form; the only rich man is the king—he has fine palaces, large treasures, excellent fortresses, and vessels far superior to those of the Chinese. His officers are merely his tools, and share but little in his splendor. The nation at large is in the most abject condition; the people are poor, wretched and filthy in the extreme, and are forced to give more than one-third of their labor or an equivalent to the king. The country is disturbed by frequent insurrections and rebellions; and emigration, though punishable as treason, has lately prevailed to a vast extent.

The empire is at present divided into three great civil dominions: Tonquin and Cambodia, which are governed by viceroys, and Cochin-China, which is under the immediate government of the emperor himself. The whole territory is subdivided into 22 provinces, of which *six* are in Cambodia; *seven* in Cochin-China, and *nine* in Tonquin, the last of which is the most populous and most valuable division of the empire.

HUE, in Cochin-China, the capital and residence of the emperor, is a large and strongly fortified city, 9 miles from the sea, upon the bank of a wide navigable river, which falls into the Gulf of Tonquin. It is of a square form, about 6 miles in circuit, surrounded by a rampart 3 feet high, which is cased with brick, kept in excellent order, and protected by bastions, all in

the European style. One side is washed by the river, and the other three by a deep wide canal. The interior is laid out in squares, but the town is rather paltry. The palace is surrounded by handsome barracks. The population is 30,000, and it is said that it would require 40,000 men to garrison the fortifications.

TURON, 60 miles S. E. of Hue, stands on a river which falls into a magnificent bay, measuring 5 miles by 2, completely land-locked. QUINHONE, 15 miles from the sea, on a fine river which falls into a bay of the same name, is one of the largest towns in the province; and rather more than 100 miles further south are the two magnificent harbors of CAMRAIGNE and NHATRANG, the latter of which is one of the naval arsenals of the empire.

KETSIO or Kachao, the capital of Tonquin, is the largest town of the empire. It is situated on the Sang-Koi, 100 miles from the sea. The city is said to be at least three times as large as Hue, and probably contains 150,000 inhabitants.

SAIGON, the capital of Cambodia, stands on a peninsula formed by two branches of the Don-nai, one of the finest rivers of Asia. Saigon is composed of two distinct towns called Bingeh and Saigon, near the former of which is an immense citadel, almost rivaling in extent the fortifications of Hue. There is likewise a great naval arsenal. The houses are as usual mean, and built of wood thatched with grass. Saigon is the principal commercial city of the empire, and contains at least 100,000 souls.

KAMBOJA, the ancient capital, is built on an island in the May-Kuang, nearly 300 miles from its mouth, but the city is greatly decayed. Its royal palace and pagoda are in ruins.

Before the middle of the last century Tonquin, Cochin-China and Cambodia formed separate kingdoms; Cochin-China being, however, tributary to Tonquin. These countries having been for many years in a state of anarchy, a revolution at length broke out in Cochin-China in 1774, which led eventually to the present order of things. The great agents in this revolt were three brothers, named Tayons, men of the lowest condition, who defeated and put to death the king and his son, who had advanced with an army to his father's rescue. But the wife of the prince having escaped with her son Gia-long, the latter, after many adventures, became ultimately king of Cochin-China and Tonquin, and established the present empire of Anam; a result for which he was indebted principally to the resolution and sagacity of the French bishop of Adran, and the skill and courage of a few European adventurers who accompanied him. Gia-long got possession of Hue in 1801; Tonquin was subdued in 1802, and Cambodia in 1809. He died in 1819, leaving his empire to an illegitimate son.

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### THE COUNTRY OF THE LAOS.

LAOS is a mountainous region situated to the north of Cambodia and Siam, occupying the upper valleys of the Meinam and the May-kuang, with Anam on the east—Yun-nan on the north, and Birmah on the west; and measuring about 800 miles in length and 400 in breadth, with a superficial area of about 280,000 square miles.

The climate is well sheltered from the physical effects of the latitude, and is in general free from the excessive power of the monsoons, which expend their force against the mountains on its east and west borders. In

winter snow and ice form in the northern districts, but the south is very temperate and healthy. The appearance of the country is magnificent, and the scenery beautiful. The soil is in general fertile, except on the higher mountains, which present an arid, rocky aspect. The country is rich in gold, silver, copper and iron. The vegetation is nearly the same as in Siam, and the country contains all the wild animals for which India is famous.

The inhabitants are called "Shyans" by the Birmese, "Lao or Low" by the Chinese, but they call themselves "Tai or Tie." They seem to be the parent stock of both the Siamese and the Assamese. They are divided into three distinct families, with many sub-divisions of tribes, and their language has a corresponding number of dialects. They are said to be more civilized than the Birmese; mild, humane, intelligent, and prosperous. Each tribe is independent in itself, and forms a member of a mutual confederacy of the whole. Anciently they practised demon-worship; some still adhere to it, but most of them are Buddhists.

ZEMMAI (Changmai,) on the Meinam, 400 miles north of Bankok, is the residence of the prince of the southern Laos, and contains about 25,000 inhabitants. Within a circuit of 50 miles are the cities of Lagong and Moungpai, each with 20,000 inhabitants; Labong with 14,000, and several smaller towns.

The "Singphos," a kindred people, occupy both sides of the upper region of the Irawaddy. They are a wild and lawless race, worship demons, and have a great hatred to Buddhism. They have several towns.

#### THE BRITISH PROVINCES.\*

THE possessions of Great Britain in the peninsula of Further India, consist of several detached provinces and islands. They are as follow :

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Area in Sq. Miles.</i>	<i>Population.</i>
MARTABAN OR MOULMEIN.....	} On the Gulf of Martaban. ....33,800.....	112,000
RE OR YE.....		
TAVOY.....		
MERGUI OR TENASSERIM.....		
MALACCA, (in lat. 2° 14' N. and 102° 12' E.).....	800.....	37,000
WELLESLEY, (continental dependency of Penang).....	140.....	25,000
PENANG, (Island of Penang).....	160.....	40,000
SINGHAPURA, (Singapore Island) &c.....	360.....	28,000
Total .....	35,160.....	242,000

1.—MARTABAN, RE, TAVOY and MERGUI, are situated along the east coast of the gulf of Martaban, between 11° and 18° N. lat., stretching inland 44 miles; and comprise a great number of islands along the coast. The whole length of the eastern frontier is formed by a range of hills, from 3,000 to 5,000 feet high. The rest of the country consists of a series of hills, valleys and plains, which extend from the mountains to the sea. The general character of Martaban is that of a champaign country, where the plains greatly exceed the hilly land. Ye and Tavoy may be described as mountainous, the valleys and plains are few and of small

\* The British possessions in Assam and Arracan have been already spoken of; though east of the Ganges they would scarcely belong to this geographical region.

extent. The Mergui district is still more hilly and the valleys are narrower. The geological formation is almost universally granite; coal, iron, antimony and tin, are abundant. The coasts of Ye and Martaban are open and exposed, but those of Tavoy, Mergui, and Tenasserim, are thickly skirted with islands which are all hilly or mountainous. The climate is very moist, and the country is covered with luxuriant vegetation. The natural productions are not different from those of Birmah and Siam. The merest fraction of the country is under cultivation. The coasts of Ye abound with large oysters which cluster together on the rocks in immense numbers.

The population consists of Talains or Peguans, Birmese, Karyens, Chaloms, Passas, &c. The first are the most civilized; the Karyens are less so, and the others are wandering half savage tribes. The Chaloms inhabit the islands. The bulk of the population is Birman. The total amounted in January, 1839, to 112,405 persons.

These provinces came into the possession of the British in 1826, by treaty with Birmah, and are now rapidly improving; and the happier circumstances under which they are governed, are daily attracting large numbers of the Birmese and Siamese to their shores, where they can enjoy a respite from native despotism. The civil establishment of the provinces consists of a commissioner, deputy-commissioner, two assistants, and a police magistrate. The first and two last reside at Moulmein, the second at Tavoy, and the junior assistant at Mergui. The Birmese is the language of the courts, of public transactions, and of general conversation. The military force is two Queen's, and two native regiments of infantry, a company of artillery, and a corps of Peguan light infantry. The revenue in 1839 amounted to 357,746 rupees, and the value of the exports to 1,325,119.

*Moulmein*, the capital, is a new town on the site of an ancient Peguan city, opposite to Martaban, on the left bank of the estuary of the Saluen. In 1826 it contained only a few huts; it now extends three miles in length, and numbers a population of 26,000, including several Parsees and Armenians, who, like the Jews, are sure to flock to any place that offers a prospect of gain. The city enjoys a good trade with foreign countries, and considerable traffic is also maintained, by means of the rivers, with the people along their banks. *AMHERST*, 27 miles south of Moulmein, has been fixed upon as a capital; but, though it has an excellent harbor, it possesses inferior advantages to the above, and will probably be abandoned. *YE*, or *YEH*, (properly *Re*\*) is a small village at the mouth of a river of the same name. *TAVOY* is a very ancient Peguan town, but is built regularly and compactly. Population, 10,000. *MERGUI* is a well-built town of 8,000 inhabitants, and has a fine harbor in the Tenasserim River. *TENASSERIM*, on the same river, is 38 miles east of Mergui.

2.—*PULO-PENANG* (Betel-nut Island), called in official documents *PRINCE OF WALES' ISLAND*, is situated near the northern entrance of the Strait of Malacca, opposite the coast of Quedah, from which it is separated by a narrow strait. It is about 16 miles long, and from 8 to 10 broad. It is of granite formation, with a range of hills extending through its whole length, but on the west side there is considerable level ground. Penang is considered healthy. *Georgetown*, the capital, is one of the neatest towns in the Indian Seas, with a capacious harbor and good anchorage.

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\* The Birmese pronounce the *r* of their alphabet like the English *y* before a vowel.

“Wellesley Province,” the continental dependency of Penang, extends 35 miles along the coast, and four miles back into the country.

The way in which these provinces came into the hands of Britain is most remarkable. In 1785, Captain Light, having married the Rajah of Quedah's daughter, received Pulo-Penang as a marriage portion. He afterwards transferred it to the E. I. Company, who agreed to pay for it \$6,000, annually, to the rajah; and they having, in 1800, obtained a further grant of a district on the opposite mainland, now pay him \$10,000 a year for both.

3.—MALACCA is a territory on the south-west coast of the Malay Peninsula, extending about 40 miles along the shore by 30 inland, and containing about 800 square miles. The coast is rocky and barren, with detached islets of cavernous rocks; but the interior is mountainous with picturesque valleys. The temperature is equable, ranging only from 72° to 85° Fahr., during the year, and the location is considered healthy.

The city of *Malacca* stands on a plain, near the mouth of a small river, in 2° 14' N. latitude, and 102° 12' E. longitude. It is regularly built, and has an excellent anchorage, but the harbor is bad. Population 6,000. It was here that Dr. Morrison established a college, for the cultivation of European and Chinese literature, in 1818. It is now one of the most valuable institutions of the East, and has several schools attached to it at Malacca, Tavoy, Moulmein, and Ragoon. Malacca was founded by the Malays, after their migration from Sumatra; it was afterwards in possession, successively, of the Portuguese, the Dutch, and the English; and was finally ceded by the Dutch to the English, in 1825, in exchange for Bencoolen, in Sumatra.

4.—SINGHAPURA, or SINGAPORE, is an elliptical-shaped island, about 50 miles in circuit, 27 long, and 15 broad, and situated at the southern extremity of the Malay peninsula, from which it is separated only by a narrow strait. Within a circuit of about ten miles there are about 50 other islands, containing together an area of about 60 square miles, all within the limits of the settlement. The surface of the principal island is beautifully diversified with valleys, plains, and irregular hills; and a more delightful climate is probably nowhere to be found.

*Singapore*, the town, is situated on the south side, in latitude 1° 17' N., and longitude 103° 31' E., on the banks of a salt creek which is navigable for lighters. The buildings are substantial, and the streets wide and regular. Its symmetry and beauty, however, are considerably impaired by the uncouth structures of the Chinese, Malays, and Hindoos, who adhere to the styles of their respective countries. The harbor, or road, is commodious, safe, of easy access, and defended by fortifications. The vicinity is splendid: the fertile plain is studded with villas and parks, and intersected by some of the finest roads of India, while an ever-verdant foliage gives life to the landscape.

Singhapura was a very ancient Malay settlement, but had been abandoned since the 13th century. In 1818 it was taken possession of by Sir T. S. Raffles, and the sovereignty confirmed to Britain in 1825, by a convention with the King of the Netherlands, and the Malay princes of Jahore, to whom it belonged. Previous to this it had been the residence of a few Malay fishermen; but so prosperous did it immediately become, that by the census of 1824 it contained 10,683 inhabitants, and, in 1834, 26,349. The trade is rapidly increasing, while the island possesses so many

advantages that it has been called "the Paradise of India," the home of plenty, and the abode of health.

Penang, Malacca, and Singhapûra, are dependencies of the Bengal Presidency, and are under the immediate charge of the Governor of Penang, who has assistants at Malacca and Singhapûra. By means of these three settlements the British have now the command of the northern passage to China. No duties on exports or imports are charged at any of the ports of these territories, which is the real cause of their prosperity.

### MALACCA, OR THE MALAY STATES.

THE peninsula of Malacca is a long, narrow tract, of about 750 miles, and 170 where broadest, but narrowing to less than 60 miles.

The range of mountains which demark the eastern boundary of the British provinces on the Gulf of Martaban, extends without interruption to the southern point of the peninsula, occupying a great part of its breadth. The whole territory is of primitive formation, and produces a considerable quantity of gold, but the staple production of the whole territory is tin. Pepper, and other aromatics, and several kinds of gums, are produced in abundance. Vast forests occupy the greater part of the interior. Vegetation, indeed, is everywhere rank and luxuriant.

The northern districts belong to the kingdom of Siam. The southern portions are chiefly inhabited by Malays, and are divided into a number of petty states or kingdoms. The independent states, as contradistinguished from those belonging to the Siamese and British, are:—Perak, with a population of 35,000; Salangore, with 15,000; Johore, with 25,000; Pahang, with 40,000; Kemamang, a very small inland district, with 1,000; Tringano, with 30,000; and Calautan with 50,000. The inland mountains are inhabited by savage tribes, some of them negroes, who are in a general state of anarchy and barbarism. Quedah, Ligor, and Patani are subject to Siam, and Malacca to Great Britain.

The Malays, who have given its name to the peninsula, migrated in the 12th century from Sumatra, to escape the subjugation of a king of Java. They seem to be a branch of the indigenous population of that great island, and probably of Java also; but are now settled along the coasts opposite to these islands. They are generally of a ferocious character, and celebrated for their piratical habits. There is, however, something highly romantic, and even interesting, in the national character of the Malays. They are not wholly illiterate, for they possess letters, and as Mahomedans, are acquainted with the Koran. They show great ingenuity in several of the mechanic arts, and in some of the principal settlements they carry on a considerable trade, and can boast of wealthy inhabitants; but nowhere is slavery and slave-dealing more common. "A bull-dog does not differ more in form and quality from a greyhound, than a Malay from a Hindoo;" and their mental dispositions, and other natural qualities, are in equal opposition.

The laws and institutions of the Malays are said to exhibit the worst forms of Islamism, mixed up with certain superstitions of their own. They practice circumcision, and believe in witchcraft. They buy their

wives, and often give so large a price for them that they run themselves in debt, and are kept in slavery by the creditor until the debt is liquidated. They have fines for theft, and even for murder; but, in most cases, the punishment depends on the power of the injured party to exact it.

The government is in the hands of sultans and rajahs, whose power is extremely limited, and is chiefly confined to the precincts of their own residences. Every village has its chief, and as these potentates seldom agree upon any common ground, warfare between and among them is perpetual. Justice is administered according to the caprice of these functionaries. They are honored with high-sounding titles; but it is difficult to conceive a greater caricature of royalty than a Malay sovereign, in his wooden palace, or barn, naked except round the waist, squatted on a mat, and eagerly bargaining for the sale of cattle and fowls, or vegetables.

The Malay towns consist of a group of huts of wood and thatch, heaped together without order or regularity.

## THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

THE Empire of China, comprising China Proper and several external territories of vast extent, forms one of the largest, and, in regard to population, civilization, and industry, one of the most remarkable nations to which the attention of mankind has ever been attracted. Separated by a wide interval from any other civilized country, its history, its government and its manners, are peculiar to itself, and date from ages long prior to all extant records. Its civilization has been developed under its own institutions; its government has been modelled without knowledge of, or reference to that of any other nation; its literature has borrowed nothing; its language is unique, and its people essentially peculiar. The examination of such a country and such a people can scarcely fail to be both instructive and entertaining; and—in exhibiting the characters of an isolated nation numbering hundreds of millions, and swayed by one power, progressing in all that is useful and ornamental in life to a high development—prove uncontestedly that man, wherever he may be, even though unthought-of and unknown to the rest of the world, and unacquainted with foreign progress, is the same creature, and capable, under all circumstances, of adapting himself to the great ends for which he was created.

“China,” as a distinctive name, is unknown to the Chinese, and its origin is a matter of discussion. It may probably have been derived from that of the dynasty of Tsin or Chin, whose chief first obtained complete sway B. C. 250. The Malays, Hindoos, Persians, Arabians, and other Asiatic nations, have known the country or its people by no other terms than *Jin*, *Chin*, *Sin*, *Sinæ*, *Tzinistæ*, and others similar; and it is probably the “land of Sinim,” mentioned in Isaiah, xlix. 12. The Chinese have many names to designate themselves, and the land they inhabit. One of the most ancient is “Tien-Hia,” (*beneath the sky*;) another, almost as ancient, is “Sz’-Hia,” (*all within*;) a third, and by which they are more commonly known, is “Chung-Kwoh,” or *Middle Kingdom*; and “Chung-Kwoh-jin,” or *Men of the Middle Kingdom*. The terms “Han-jin,” and “Han-tsz” (*sons of Han*), are now common; and “Tang-jin,” (*Men of Tang*), is frequently



heard among the natives; and the phrase "Tang-shan," denotes the whole country. The present dynasty calls the empire "Ta-Tsing-Kwoh," or *Great Pure Kingdom*; and it is sometimes called "Tsing-Chau," or *Land of the Pure Dynasty*. The term so frequently heard in western countries for China—"Celestial Empire"—is derived from "Tien-Chau," i. e. *Heavenly Dynasty*, meaning the kingdom which the dynasty, appointed by heaven, rules over; but the *Celestials*, for the people of that kingdom is entirely of foreign manufacture, and their language could with difficulty be made to express such a patronymic.\* The Chinese are also described as "Li-Min," or the *black-haired race*, and their country as "Chung-Hwa-Kwoh," the *Middle Flowery Kingdom*: as "Nui-Ti," or *inner land*, and "Hwa-Hia," or the *Glorious Hia*. • Their language is called the "Hwa-Yen," or the *Flowery Language*.

The limits of the vast territory of the Chinese Empire are not well-defined; but the best authorities place it between the latitudes of  $20^{\circ}$ , (or if the island of Hai-nan be included)  $18^{\circ} 10'$  and  $56^{\circ} 10'$  north, and between the longitudes of  $70^{\circ}$  and  $144^{\circ} 50'$  east. The outline is irregular, but the form of the empire is nearly a square. On the east and south-east it is bounded by various arms of the Pacific Ocean; Tonquin and Birmah border on the provinces of Kwang-tung, Kwang-si, and Yun-nan, in the south-west; the high ranges of the Himalayas separate Assam, Bootan, Nepaul, and the states of India from Tibet, the western border of which is the Kara-Korum Mountains; the state of Lahore, Cashmere, &c., and the Kirghiz Steppe lie upon the western border of Little Tibet, Ladak, and Ilí, as far north as the Russian border, and are separated from the Chinese territory by the Belûr-tag; and thence Russia is co-terminous with China from the Kirghiz Steppe along the Altai and Daourian Mountains for 3,300 miles eastward to the sea. The longest line which can be drawn from the south-western part of Ilí, north-easterly to the sea of Okhotsk, is 3,350 miles, and its greatest breadth is 2,100 miles. The superficies is estimated at 5,000,000 square miles. The circuit of the empire is 12,550 miles. Thus the Chinese Empire includes all the table-land of Eastern Asia—about a third-part of the whole continent, or a little less than a tenth-part of the habitable globe, and contains within its enormous area the largest amount of population and wealth united under one government, in the world.

The Empire of China exhibits in its physical conformations many of the grand proportions of Asia generally. Within its confines are several large chains of mountains, with peaks of stupendous height, but the ridges themselves generally range below the snow-line. The first is the Tien-shan or Celestial Mountains, extending from  $76^{\circ}$  to  $90^{\circ}$  east longitude, and generally along the  $22^{\circ}$  parallel, dividing Ilí, in their course, into the two circuits of Songaria and Tarkestan. The space between the Altai and Tien-shan is very much broken up by mountain spurs. Nearly parallel with the Celestial Mountains in part of their course is the Nan-shan, Kwan-lun or Koulkun range of mountains. The Koulkun starts from the Pushtikhur knot, in latitude  $36^{\circ}$  north, and runs along eastward in nearly the same parallel through the whole breadth of the table-land, dividing Tibet from the desert of Gobi. The large tract between the Tien-shan and Koulkun is mostly occupied by the desert, but on the southern declivities of the former are

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\* The Middle Kingdom. By S. Wells Williams.

many fertile spots and some large towns. The mineral treasures of the Koulkun are probably great, and its wealth is indicated from the many precious stones brought therefrom. This desolate region is the favorite locality for the monsters, fairies, genii, and other beings of Chinese legendary lore. Several ridges branch off from this range, and form so many intervening valleys, which, though more or less broken up, present many fertile spots, which are inhabited by a hardy people, and produce an abundance of the necessities of life. The Himalayas, after forming the southern boundary of Tibet, range eastward across the country, forming the watershed between the basin of the Kiang-ku and the rivers which flow south to the ocean. Thus it will be seen that the country is almost surrounded and defined by a wall of high mountains, and the outline of the mountain chains around and within describes sufficiently the principal features to give an idea of the arrangement of the country. The proportion which is either mountainous or hilly is nearly four-fifths of the whole, (excluding the desert,) but most of it is susceptible of cultivation, which is, in many cases, carried even to the hill tops.

Between the Tien-shan and Kuen-lun lies the great desert of Gobi or Sha-moh; the entire length of this waste is more than 1800 miles, with an average breadth of 350 to 400 miles, and the area between the mountain ranges which define it, is about 1,200,000 square miles. The whole of this tract, however, is not a desert, though no part of it can lay claim to more than comparative fertility; and the great altitude of most portions seems to be as much the cause of its sterility as the nature of the soil. The desert has several names for its different portions, but all signifying its peculiar character. The general features of this portion of the earth's surface are less forbidding than Sahara, but more so than the Steppes of Siberia or the pampas of South America.

The rivers of China form one of its most conspicuous features. No country can compare with her for natural facilities of inland navigation. The four largest rivers are the Hwang-ho or yellow river, the Yangtsz'-kiang, the Hehlung-kiang' or Amour, and the Tarim or Yarkand. The Yaru-tsangbu also runs more than a thousand miles within its borders. The Hwang-ho rises in a marshy plain between the Bayan-kara and Kwan-lun mountains, and after struggling through gorges for several hundreds of miles, takes a northern direction for 400 miles further, when it turns east; and deflecting to the south about  $110^{\circ}$  E. long. for 500 miles, enters the great plain, having run from its source 1130 miles. In this part of its course it becomes mixed with the clay which imparts both color and name to it. From this point the stream flows eastward about 650 miles, and finally disembogues itself in lat  $34^{\circ}$ , bearing the character of a mighty, impracticable, turbid, furious stream, through most of its long route. The area of its basin is 700,000 square miles, and although its source is only 1290 miles in a direct line from its mouth, its numerous windings prolong its course to nearly double that distance. It is but little used by the Chinese for navigation on account of its impetuosity. The Yangtsz'-kiang is a more tranquil and useful river: it rises on the southern declivity of the mountains near the source of the Yellow River, but before its union with the Yah-lung-kiang little is known respecting it; its general course from this point is easterly, receiving various tributaries on both shores, and passing through several lakes, until it discharges its waters by two mouths, in lat  $32^{\circ}$  N., more than 1850 miles from its source in a direct line, but flowing nearly 3000 miles in all its windings. This

river is navigable for the largest ships 200 miles, as far as Nan-king, and probably many miles further, where in some places no bottom is found at 20 fathoms, and ships have anchored in 10 fathoms almost among the rushes. The tides are perceptible 400 miles up, and no river exceeds this for the fine arrangement of its subsidiary streams, which render the whole basin accessible, and no interruption of importance is experienced by waterfalls. The basin drained by the Yangtsz'-kiang has an area of 75,000 square miles. Besides these two principal rivers and their large branches, numerous others empty into the ocean along the coast from Hai-nan to Sagalien. The Chu-kiang, formed by three principal branches, disembogues at Kwang-tung, and drains a basin of 200,000 square miles, being all the country east of the Yun-ling and south of the Nan-ling ranges. The rivers in Yun-nan for the most part empty into the streams of Cochin China. The Nin, which flows by Fuh-chau-fu; the Tsih, upon which Ningpo lies; the Tsien-lang, and the Pei-ho or White River, are the most considerable among the lesser outlets of China Proper. The Liau-ho and Yahyuen-kiang, discharging into the gulf of Liautung, are the only two that deserve mention in Southern Manchuria.

The lakes of China are comparatively few and small; the largest in China Proper is the Tung-ting-hu in Hunan, about 220 miles in circuit. About 300 miles eastward lies the Poyang lake in Kiang-si, which discharges its waters into the Yangtsz'-kiang; it is nearly 90 miles long by 20 in breadth, and encloses within its bosom many beautiful and populous islets. The Yangtsz'-kiang receives the waters of several other lakes as it approaches the ocean. All of these lie within the plain, and are connected with the two great rivers. The only lake of any size connected with the Hwang-ho is the Hungtsih-hu in Kiang-su, situated near the junction of that river and the great canal. It is more remarkable for the fleet of boats upon it, than for its scenery. Most of the country between the mouths of these two rivers is so marshy and full of lakes, as to suggest the idea that the whole was once an enormous estuary. Besides these, there are other lakes in Chih-li and Shang-tung, and one or two of considerable extent in Yun-nan; all of these support an amphibious population, living in boat-cities, who subsist principally on the fish found in the waters. There are also several lakes in Manchuria, the largest of which is the Hinkai-nor in Kirin, near the source of the Osouri. The regions lying north and south of Gobi, are remarkable for their inland salt lakes. The largest is Lop-nor in Turkestan, 70 miles long and 30 wide; and north of this about 30 miles is Bostang-nor, which is much smaller; but taking the whole number collectively, these small lakes form a considerable area. The whole region of Koko-nor is a country of lakes; Tengkiri-nor is the largest within the frontiers of the Chinese Empire.

The coast of China is lined throughout its whole extent, from Hai-nan to the Yangtsz'-kiang, with multitudes of islands. From that point northward to Liau-tung the shores are low and dangerous. The western shores of Corea are high and bold, but from the peninsula, called Regent's Sword, northward and westward around the shores of the gulfs of Liau-tung and Pe-che-le, down to the promontory of Shang-tung, the coast is low and shallow. The bay of Tungtsz'-kau, on the west of the peninsula, marks the termination of the Great Wall, and so distinct and high are its course and towers, that it forms a conspicuous land-mark. South of the embouchure of the Pei-ho the coast is somewhat bolder, and Cape Macartney, at the eastern end of

the promontory is a bluff, very distinct when viewed from the sea. From this cape to the mouth of the Tsien-lang, the coast is very low and has but few good harbors. South of Kitto Point the shores are bolder, and numerous bays occur among the islands. The estuary of the Pearl River, from the Bocca Tigris down to the Grand Ladrões, and from Hong-kong on the east, to the island of Tungku on the west, is interspersed with islands of greater or less size. Proceeding westward from Macao, the coast is lined with dangerous reefs and shoals. The narrow strait that separates Hai-nan from the peninsula of Luichau, has been supposed to be the place called by Arabian travellers in the 9th century, the Gates of China.

In this rapid survey of the coast line, only the principal features have been noticed. The Chusan Archipelago off the coast of Cheh-kiang is a detached group, forming the termination of the mountain chain, which passes through that province. The island of Formosa, or Taiwan, forms a large link in that chain, connecting the islands of Japan and Loo-choo with Luçonia. Between Formosa and the coast lie the Panghu Islands; but this group is much less in extent and number than the Chusan Islands, and the harbors are fewer. The whole coast, indeed, has comparatively few good harbors.

The Chinese Empire is divided into three principal parts, viz.:—China Proper, Manchuria, and the Colonial Possessions.

CHINA PROPER, or the 18 provinces, is, with trivial additions, the country which was conquered by the Manchus in 1664.

MANCHURIA, or the native country of the Manchus, lies north of the Great Wall, and east of the Daourian chain to the Pacific.

The COLONIAL POSSESSIONS include Mongolia, Ilí, (comprising Songaria and Eastern Turkestan,) Koko-nor, and Tibet.

The following table exhibits the extent and population of the several components of the empire.

<i>Divisions.</i>	<i>Approximate area in sq. m.</i>	<i>Approximate Population.</i>	<i>Pop. to sq. m.</i>	<i>Capitals.</i>
CHINA PROPER.....	1,300,000.....	363,000,000.....	270.....	PE-KING.
MANCHURIA.....	700,000.....	7,000,000.....	10.....	Moukden.
MONGOLIA.....	1,400,000.....	14,000,000.....	10.....	—
ILI.....	900,000.....	9,000,000.....	10.....	Yarkand.
TIBET.....	700,000.....	7,000,000.....	10.....	H'lassa.
Colonies.				
Total.....	5,000,000	400,000,000	80.4	

The population of the four last divisions is entirely unknown, and is here set down at ten persons to each square mile. In Manchuria and Tibet it is probably much larger. Corea and Ladak, though usually described as parts of the Empire, are in reality independent states.

## CHINA PROPER.

(*Shih-pah-Sang, or the Eighteen Provinces.*)

CHINA PROPER occupies the south-eastern portion of the empire. It is bounded on the east and south-east by the Pacific; on the south by Birmah, Anam, &c.; on the north by Manchuria and Mongolia; and on the west by Tibet. The greatest length from north to south is 1,500; the greatest breadth 1,100; and the area is variously estimated at 1,297,999 to nearly 2,000,000 square miles.

China consists of a series of river basins, and of lowlands along the sea-coasts, divided by ranges of high hills. Yun-nan, the south-western province, is very mountainous, and sends out two branches eastward—the one of which separates the basin of the Si-kiang from the coasts of the Gulf of Tonquin; the other separates it from the basin of the Yangtsz'-kiang, and its affluents,—whose basins are themselves divided by diverging ranges from each other,—and forms the coast of the east sea. The basin of the Yangtsz'-kiang is divided from that of the Whang-ho by a continuation of high land, which diverges eastward from the Pe-ling Mountains on the borders of Tartary, but which, terminating before they reach the coast, leave a large alluvial plain between the mouths of the two rivers. The remaining portion of the country between the Whang-ho and the Gulf of Pe-che-le, consists of the basin of the Pei-ho and the Fu-ho, having the hills of Shantung on the south, and a cross range on the west, but communicating with the basin of the Whang-ho by an opening at the angle formed by the two ranges.

The temperature of China is very low for its geographical position. Its climate may also be said to be one of extremes. At Pe-king, which is nearly one degree further south than Naples, the mean temperature is that of Britany; while the scorching heats of summer are greater than at Cairo, and the winters as rigorous as at Upsal. But in so extensive a territory there are necessarily many variations. The western districts are much influenced by the cold, diffused by the mountains, while the maritime provinces are modified by the sea. At Kwang-tung, which is under the tropic, the heat during July, August and September is excessive; then occur those frightful tornadoes, called typhoons, spreading devastation in their course; and, at the breaking up of these, the transitions from the heat of day to cold and foggy nights, are more violent and sudden than in any other part of the globe. The north winds set in with November, and bring with them cold as intense as the preceding heats. The mean temperature of Kwang-tung is 76° Fahr. The climate of the interior is not, however, so intense, particularly toward the northern frontier, where the summers are genial; and though the winter be cold, it is dry, and does not check the growth of fruit, but the north winds bring clouds of white sand which afflict the natives with ophthalmia. The central provinces present a striking contrast to those already named. There the climate exhibits a happy medium between the rigors of the north and the enervating heats and colds of the south. The fall of rain in China varies considerably in different years, and must of course be modified by locality. Humboldt states that the average quantity per annum is 70 inches, though it has been known to exceed 90 inches.

The metallic and mineral productions of China, used in the arts, comprise nearly everything found in other countries; and they are furnished in such abundance, and at such rates, as conclusively to show that they are plenty and easily worked. Coal, both anthracite and bituminous, is generally used for fuel, and has been found in almost every part of the provinces. Crystallized gypsum is abundant in the province of Kwang-tung, and when ground, is plentifully used by the bakers and grocers to increase the weight of their commodities; limestone, marble, sandstone, mica slate, and other species of rock, are also worked for pavements and walls. Nitre, vitriol, rock salt, and common salt, are obtained in abundance. The ruby, diamond, amethyst, garnet, opal, agate, and other stones, are known among

the Chinese; but whether they are all found in the country or imported, is doubtful. All the common metals, except platina, are found in China. Gold is collected in the sands of the rivers in Yun-nan, and the mines of silver in that region are extensive. Cinnabar occurs in Shen-si. Copper, tin, lead, and iron are very plentiful; but the Chinese are not well acquainted with mining, and, as a consequence, the production is limited, and large quantities imported from foreign countries.

There are many hot springs and other indications of volcanic action along the southern declivities of the table-land in the provinces of Shen-si and Sz'-chuen; and in Chih-li there are thermal springs which are resorted to from a distance by invalids; and similar phenomena occur elsewhere in that region.

The southern provinces possess the usual products of tropical regions, few of which, however, are seen to the north of the Pass of Meilan. Between that mountain range and the Whang-ho, various species of orange, lemon, tea, sugar-cane, rice, pomegranates, black and white mulberries, the vine, the walnut, chestnut, peach, apricot, and fig, are seen growing on the same spot. Camellias, bamboos, and cypresses are also found; the whole zone abounds with coniferæ, and the mountains are adorned with pines. The principal object of cultivation is rice; but in the north-western provinces there are districts too cold and dry for this grain, which is therefore replaced by wheat. Yams, potatoes, turnips, onions, beans, and, above all, a kind of white cabbage, called *potsai*, are cultivated. But not the least important of the vegetable products is *cha* or tea, of which the Chinese botanists reckon 200 species. It grows in the most sterile ground on the sunny ridges of hills, chiefly between  $25^{\circ}$  and  $30^{\circ}$  N. latitude; though it is also found in various other parts of the country, the cultivation appears to be confined to the temperate zone, extending to the northern provinces. The tea-districts, properly so called, are thus stated by Dr. Abel: that of the green tea is in Kiang-nan, between  $29^{\circ}$  and  $31^{\circ}$  N. latitude, at the north-western base of a ridge of mountains which divides Cheh-kiang and Kiang-nan; the black-tea district in Fuh-kien, is contained within latitude  $27^{\circ}$  and  $28^{\circ}$  N., and is situated on the south-eastern declivities of a ridge of mountains which separates Fuh-kien from Kiang-si. Green teas are very little used by the Chinese; though an infusion of tea is used universally throughout the country, and is brought forward on all occasions, and at all times of the day. Public tea-houses are also found in every town and village.

China contains scarcely any animals which are not common to other countries. The elephant is found in the south-western provinces, and the one-horned rhinoceros lives in the marshes of Yun-nan and Kwang-si. The musk deer is sometimes found in the western provinces; deer, boars, foxes, and other wild animals abound in the forests. The Chinese rear, though in small numbers, all the domestic animals of Europe, the horse, the ass, the ox, the buffalo, the dog, the cat, and the pig. They have also two-humped camels of a small size. They eat almost indiscriminately every living creature that comes in their way; dogs, cats, hawks, owls, eagles, and storks are regular market commodities; and, in default of these, a dish of rats or snakes is not objected to; and cock-roaches, and other insects and reptiles are used for food or medicine. Some of the native birds are very splendid; the fish are in great variety; and from China we have derived the gold and silver fish of our ponds and vases. The insects are numerous and beautiful. The white-wax insect produces an important necessary of

life. Sir George Staunton mentions it as an insect not much exceeding the size of a fly, covered with a white powder, which is imparted to the stems of the plants on which it lives. This powder is collected by the people, who apply to it hot vegetable oil, and the mass, when cold, coagulates and becomes as firm as bees' wax. As a medicinal drug, it is highly esteemed throughout China, and, for making candles, is reckoned superior to bees' wax. The silk-worm is said to have come originally from China. The people rear this valuable insect in small houses erected for the purpose in the midst of the mulberry plantations; and even the inhabitants of the towns rear it, and purchase mulberry leaves for the purpose. Destructive ants abound in the southern provinces.

The Chinese are considered by physiologists as belonging to the Mongolian variety of the human race. The head is almost square, the nose is short without being flat, the complexion yellow, the beard thin and the eyes oblique. There is, however, a great difference between the southern and the northern Chinese, and between the mountaineers and the inhabitants of the plains and sea-coasts. A Chinese female is vain of her beauty in proportion to the smallness of her eyes, the protuberance of her lips, the lankness and blackness of her hair, and the extreme smallness of her feet. Among the men, corpulence, as the indication of an easy life, commands a certain degree of respect; and men of thin figure are regarded as destitute of talent. People of quality allow the nails of their fingers to grow, and stain the hair of the head and the beard black.

The Chinese are generally of a middle size; few tall men are found among them, and still fewer dwarfs or deformed persons. The women can be seen with difficulty, and generally those only of the lower ranks, who are not distinguishable from the men by any delicacy of feature or complexion. Their persons indeed are considered to be the reverse of elegant or beautiful. With respect to character—peace, industry, order, and regularity appear to prevail among them. Flagrant crimes, and open violations of law, are not common; but petty delinquencies and frauds are very prevalent. The supreme ruler of the country is the bamboo, which is applied, at the discretion of the magistrates, to all ranks of offenders; and on such occasions the delinquent is obliged to return thanks to the magistrate for his paternal care of his morals. The attachment to kindred is very strong, and the support of the aged and infirm is inculcated as a sacred duty, which appears to be very strictly fulfilled. Towards strangers, however, and persons not of their own family, their indifference is extreme; and in cases of accident, they allow their neighbors to perish before their eyes, without offering the smallest assistance. They all marry early, and are very prolific, the consequence of which is a very numerous, and generally redundant population, who, with all their industry and moderation, have often great difficulty in obtaining the means of subsistence. Emigration is prohibited; but great numbers of men, notwithstanding, contrive to leave the country; numerous colonies have settled in the Indian Archipelago, and some have even gone to Calcutta, Mauritius, and Brazil.

The community of China appears to be divided into four ranks or orders; of which the literati or learned occupy the first place; the husbandmen the second; the manufacturers the third; and the merchants the fourth. But in this country, as everywhere else, wealth raises its possessor above such conventional distinctions. The merchants accordingly, though lowest in rank, can command the services of their superiors; but it is only the *learned* who are yet allowed to occupy places in the government.

The only persons possessing hereditary rank are the members of the Imperial family, who are distributed into five classes, all distinguished by wearing a yellow girdle; but they possess no political powers or privileges, and have only very small revenues assigned to them for subsistence. The consequence is, that some of the more remote of these branches are in very indigent circumstances. Being likewise brought up to a life of idleness, they are in many cases ignorant, dissipated, and worthless; but they are kept under strict control. Besides the descendants of the emperors, there is another class of imperial kinsmen, descended from the brothers or uncles of the first Tartar emperor, who are distinguished by a red sash and bridle. Every thing connected with their dress and equipage is subject to minute regulation, and they are as strictly watched as the others. It is said there are still some descendants of the Ming dynasty in existence, but they have laid aside the yellow girdle through fear of persecution.

Polygamy is not permitted; a man can have only one legal wife, but he may have as many *tsie* or concubines as he pleases, or can afford; and the offspring of the latter possess many of the rights of legitimacy. The wife is espoused with regular marriage ceremonies, is the equal of her husband in rank, and possesses certain legal rights, such as they are; but the *tsie* is bought for money, and is taken into the house nearly as any other domestic. The women are, however, the slaves of their husbands and masters; they live and die in ignorance, and every effort to raise themselves above the rank assigned to them is regarded as impious arrogance.

Besides the subjects of the Emperor, there are within the limits of China Proper several tribes who have always maintained their independence. The higher districts of Yun-nan are occupied by a hardy highland race called *Lolo*, of a totally different character from the Chinese. Such is their valor, and the strength of their mountain fastnesses, that the Imperial Government has been obliged to rest satisfied with a nominal acknowledgment of homage, leaving the internal government to be administered by the native hereditary chiefs. In the neighboring province of Kwei-chau are several tribes of rude people called *Miaotsi*, who inhabit the mountain districts, and have hitherto bid defiance to the military force of the empire. The people who possess the mountain districts of Hai-nan and Formosa are likewise nearly, if not altogether independent.

The Ladrões, or Pirates of the islands which stud the southern coasts of China, form a numerous and organized body, and possess a fleet of at least 500 well-manned vessels, of from 10 to 250 tons, the largest carrying 12 guns, and all of them armed, besides the ordnance, with abundance of small arms, spears, swords, and boarding krises. They are under strict discipline, and often evince great bravery.

With statistics the population of China has long been an insoluble problem; and their estimates have varied from about 30 to 370 millions. Balbi, by his approximative method, determines it to be 150 millions. In 1793, Sir G. Staunton was informed by a mandarin of high rank, that it then amounted to 333 millions; and in 1832 Mr. J. R. Morrison, of Canton, stated in the Companion to the Anglo-Chinese Almanac, as the result of a census taken in 1813, and published by imperial authority, the amount as having then been 369,659,901. Mr. Medhurst says that it was, in 1812, 361,221,900, and adds, that after the fullest consideration of all that has been said on the subject—after the most patient investigation of native documents, and after extensive inquiries and observations among the people for more than twenty years, he cannot resist the conviction that the population of China Proper



is as above stated; besides the population of Formosa, and the tribes of Chinese Tartary. Mr. Gutzlaff also declares himself to be "fully persuaded that the last imperial census is as near the truth as it can be ascertained." Those parts of the empire which he visited were extremely populous. He took the trouble of examining some parts of the census, and of numbering the houses in small districts, and invariably found that the population was under-rated. And Mr. Morrison, in publishing the statement already referred to, observes that it "will probably serve to set at rest the numerous speculations concerning the real amount of population in China. We know from several authorities that in China the people are in the habit of diminishing rather than increasing their numbers in their reports to government. And it is unreasonable to suppose that in a work published by the government, not for the information of curious inquirers, but for the use of its own officers, the numbers reported by the people should be more than doubled, as the statement of some European speculators would require us to believe."

One of the most curious features of Chinese policy is the encouragement given to the cultivation of literature, which is professedly the only channel or introduction to advancement in the state, and to the acquisition of office, rank, and honors. With the prospect of such rewards the number of students is very great, and a taste for letters is almost universally diffused. Schools abound in every town and village, and the best education which the country affords may be procured on the most moderate terms. Certain magistrates are appointed in every province to take charge of the candidates for employment, to direct them in their studies, and twice a-year to hold public examinations, when small presents are distributed to the most deserving. At Pe-king is a grand national college, named Han-lin-yen, which is supported by government, the members of which are the chief literati of the empire. Nothing, however, but old established principles are taught; the scholar of the present day must not venture to go beyond the sages of ancient times; learning is consequently at a complete stand-still. As a further encouragement to literature, the press is left free, and any one may print what he pleases, taking his risk of the consequences; the government being very rigid in suppressing "wicked, corrupt, and seditious publications," and in punishing their authors. The antiquity and importance of Chinese literature have only of late years been duly appreciated in foreign parts, and have but very recently begun to attract the attention of students. "The Chinese literature," says Mr. Abel Remusat, "is incontestably the first in Asia, in respect of the number, the importance, and the authenticity of its monuments. The classic works, named *King*, go back to a very remote epoch. The philosophers of the school of Confucius have made them the basis of their labors upon morals and politics. History has always been the object of attention, and the Chinese annals form the most complete and continuous that exists in any language. The custom of competition has given a powerful stimulus to political and philosophic eloquence. Literary history, criticism, and biography, are the subjects of a crowd of works, remarkable for their order and regularity. The Chinese possess many translations of Sanscrit books upon religion and metaphysics. The literati cultivate poesy, which is subject to the double yoke of metre and rhyme; they have lyric, narrative, and descriptive poems, theatrical pieces, romances of manners, and romances wherein the marvellous prevails. They have, besides, a great number of special and general collections, libraries, and encyclopædias, and in the last century they began the printing of a collection of select works in

180,000 volumes! Notes, glosses, commentaries, catalogues, indices, extracts arranged in the order of subjects, lend their aid to facilitate research. They have excellent dictionaries, in which all the symbols of their writing, and all the words of their language, are explained with the greatest care, and in a very regular order. Books are printed upon silk paper, and as this paper is extremely fine, they are obliged to print only upon one side; the parts are classed, numbered, and paged; finally, there is not, even in Europe, a nation that has so many books, books so well made, so commodious for consultation, and at so low a price;" and notwithstanding there is no country where real science and literature are at a lower ebb.

Geography has been cultivated from the most ancient times; a fact which is proved by the descriptions of the empire given in the *Chou-king*, five centuries B. C. The Jesuits constructed a new map of the empire by order of the Emperor Kang-hi, between 1707 and 1715, and a new edition of it, with corrections, was published in 104 sheets in 1760, by order of the Emperor Kien-long, under the direction of the missionaries. The imperial geography forms 260 volumes, in quarto, with maps and plans. It embraces every topic: topography, hydrography, monuments, antiquities, natural curiosities, industry, productions, commerce, agriculture, government, population, general history, biography, and bibliography. Astronomy has always been held in honour, but its progress has been very limited. Their knowledge of mathematical science appears to be very low; they use the decimal system of arithmetic, and execute with rapidity all its operations by means of a machine, the swanpan, the use of which has passed into Russia and Poland. Their theory of military tactics displays some learning, and has even fixed the attention of some generals of the school of the great Frederick; but their artillery is very defective; their muskets are inferior, and their powder is very inefficient. The Chinese were, nevertheless, acquainted with the art of making gunpowder before it was known in Europe, and they have long been accustomed to make fire-works, which produce a surprising effect. Their medical science is mixed with superstitious practices, and founded upon imaginary theories. Their pharmacopœa, however, is rich, and they have good books of medical natural history, accompanied with plates; but their physicians are the only cultivators of natural history. Their arts of design are very imperfect; they are unacquainted with perspective; and the only objects which they paint well are plants, flowers, houses, boats, and other objects of inanimate nature. Their sculpture is distinguished only by its nice finish; but they execute in wood sculptures in relief of remarkable fineness. Their architecture has neither grandeur nor elegance; and yet the order, and the fine colors with which their buildings are adorned, have a seducing effect. Magnificence is reserved for public buildings, such as the emperor's palace, temples, towers, triumphal arches, town walls, and gates. Their bridges, canals, quays, and particularly the embankments of the Yellow River, are as remarkable for the persevering industry which has produced them, as for their usefulness. The Chinese music, though founded upon a very complicated system, wants, nevertheless, according to European taste, both harmony and melody.—(*Balbi's Abregé*, p. 787.)

The manners of this numerous people have one striking characteristic, and their religious opinions and practices are precisely similar throughout the empire. When the main features of the Chinese character have been studied in one place and in one person, they have been studied in all; and when one train of argument has been discovered which suffices to silence the

objections of one individual, it will be equally effective on all other occasions. The uniformity and invariableness of the Chinese mind is to be traced perhaps to their possessing one set of opinions on philosophy and religion ; which being laid down in their ancient books, and transmitted from age to age, constitute the public and universal belief on these topics, and run through the whole mass of society. Hence the missionaries find the Chinese always using the same arguments, and starting the same objections, which having been often answered before, may be easily answered again. In the system of Chinese literature there is no harmony or continuity. The most deplorable ignorance stands in immediate juxtaposition with science of more than ordinary refinement ; an astonishing accuracy and minuteness of detail are often combined with a total want of general principles, or with principles grossly incorrect. Here and there are observable foundations of immense mental strength, on which no superstructure is erected ; or, perhaps, some superstructure of so uncouth an appearance, and so useless and fragile, as to prove only the perverted ingenuity of the artist ; and on the other hand, surprise is excited by the prospect of some noble and magnificent edifice, which seems to have sprung from the ground, like the palace of Aladdin, without any perceptible agency of sufficient power to call it into being. All the intellectual combinations of China are monstrous ; they possess uniformly a mingled character of civilization and barbarism. The people have been from time immemorial separated from the rest of mankind, and no free intercourse has ever shaped their rude inventions into forms calculated to make them suitable to mankind in general. All that they have done is specifically Chinese ; all their productions have a national character ; they are stiff, contracted, and incapable of being wrought into any foreign composition.

The spoken language of China is composed of monosyllables, of which there are scarcely 350 which a European can distinguish from one another ; but the Chinese are able, by various modulations of the voice, to distinguish many more—about 1,300. The syntax is also very meagre ; declensions and conjugations are wanting, and their place is supplied by circumlocutions. There is also a written language, expressed by about 80,000, or, according to some writers, 40,000 different characters or symbols, each representing a separate object or idea ; and as this written language is common to the whole empire, the natives of the various provinces, though speaking different dialects, and mutually unintelligible when speaking their own dialect, can, nevertheless, all read the written language, and have thus a ready means of general communication. Even beyond the limits of Chinese dominion the Chinese written language is understood ; and throughout Cochin-China, Corea, and Japan, it is a common object of learning. The multiplicity of characters might seem an insuperable obstacle in acquiring the language ; but these are in fact compounded of 214 elementary symbols, which form a clue to their labyrinth ; and by the help of which, dictionaries have been formed that enable foreigners to acquire a competent knowledge of it in a comparatively short time.

Buddhism, the religion of the Chinese, appears to have been founded 800 or 1,000 years before the Christian era. It does not recognise a Supreme Being, but substitutes a number of Buddhas, who are created in an imaginary region or heaven, and each of whom visits the earth once. The Buddhists believe in a perpetual series of destructions and reproductions of the world, and of successive transmissions of souls from one state to another, always

advancing in a ratio according to their merits towards perfection or a pure spiritual existence. They regard existence as a material delusion, and believe that the intellectual or spiritual essence, which is distributed through all matter, is continually employed in freeing itself from material corruption, and purifying itself from delusion. Hence there are various degrees of spiritual probation. Up to the present time four Buddhas have appeared on the earth, and the fifth is announced to appear in the year 4457 of the Christian era.

Besides the prevailing religion there is that of Confucius, of Tao-tze, and nearly all the forms of mythology known to history, with deities innumerable, who are supposed to preside over everything in creation, from celestial affairs even down to the economy of the kitchen. Astrology, necromancy, geomancy and divination sway the deluded masses, and every one possesses spells and charms. They have no Sabbath, and no division of time by weeks, but labor every day in the year, except the first, which they devote to family visiting, and the last which is held sacred to the memory of their ancestors. They celebrate the festival of the full moon with noise and riot, and at the first full moon of each year they celebrate the "feast of lanterns" for two successive nights, when the whole empire is illuminated, and every house and every vessel on the rivers and canals decorated with large painted lanterns.

The government of China is in the form of a patriarchal despotism; limited, however, in some degree by the right of representation possessed by certain classes of magistrates, and by the obligation of the emperor to select all government officers from the literati. This class forms an enlightened aristocracy, to which young men of every rank may be admitted, after having passed the successive educational steps necessary to qualify them for the exercise of public functions. The emperor takes the title of "Son of Heaven" and "August Emperor;" he exercises supreme power, chooses his successor from among the legitimate heirs, and believes himself responsible for any calamity that may befall his people, as pestilence, famine, &c., and when such occurs, he publicly accuses himself of having offended Heaven, and imposes upon himself certain penances to propitiate the offended gods.

The public functionaries are divided into nine classes, each of which is distinguished by a jewel or ornament peculiar to itself, and which is worn in the caps of the officials. Their common title is "Quan," called by Europeans "Mandarins," from the Portuguese verb *mandar*, to command.

There are six ministerial departments or bureaus at Pe-king, the seat of government. The *first* superintends, selects and promotes all civil officers; the *second* has charge of the treasury, taxes, coinage, census, &c; the *third* superintends public ceremonies and the different forms of religion; the *fourth* manages the affairs of the army and navy; the *fifth* is the police department, and looks to the detection and punishment of crime; and the *sixth* or bureau of public works, has charge of all public buildings, mines, canals, bridges, &c. There is also a board of censors, who watch over the words and conduct of the emperor; a board of music; a colonial office; and another board of censors which presides over the deliberations of all the other departments, and reports to the emperor.

China Proper is divided into eighteen provinces, which are again subdivided into various districts and sub-districts. These are governed by viceroys, each of whom has generally two or three provinces under his

charge; each province has also a deputy governor, a superintendent of the literati, a director of finance, a criminal judge and superintendents of the salt-pits and granaries. Each district and other minor division has also its particular magistrates, who are invested with ministerial and judicial authority. The proportion of public officers is very small in comparison to the population, and probably does not exceed one to every 10,000 inhabitants, and most of these do not receive more than \$250 salary per annum. The expenses of the government are consequently small, and the burdens of taxation proportionally light.

The revenue, says Mr. Medhurst, "is derived principally from the land tax, which is paid partly in kind and partly in money; it is in general a very light impost, and amounts not, as some suppose, to one tenth, but more usually to one fiftieth, or one hundredth of the produce. There are also taxes on pledged articles; and more particularly a heavy impost on salt; while customs are established on the sea-coast, and at the most important passes in hills and junctions of rivers, so as to secure the mercantile as well as the agricultural population. Some of the revenue thus derived is kept in the provinces to pay the army, navy and police, and to provide against famines, while a considerable portion is forwarded to Pe-king for the immediate service of the emperor and his officers. We cannot, therefore, form a correct estimate of the resources of China, unless we consider all that is sent to the capital and expended in the provinces as being alike drawn from the labor of the people and devoted to the service of the state. Thus the revenue of the Chinese empire will appear to be as follows:

Land-tax paid in money, {	sent to Peking {	.....	\$42,327,944
“ “ grain, {	“ “ “ {	.....	12,692,371
Customs paid in money, {	“ “ “ {	.....	1,974,662
Grain, {	kept in the provinces, {	.....	105,689,707
Money, {	“ “ “ {	.....	38,273,500
Total.....			\$200,958,694

This revenue, when divided among the total population, amounts only to about 56 cents per head, and if that only which is sent to Pe-king be reckoned, namely \$56,996,687, it will not amount to much more than 15 cents per head. This is certainly a small sum on which to manage such a government; but the small pay of the officers, and there being no national debt, sufficiently account for it. Every statement is alike on this subject, and each attests that from one to two per cent. of the produce is the utmost of what is exacted by the government in the shape of a land tax.

According to the communication of Father Bitshurin to the academy of Arts and Sciences at St. Petersburg in 1837, the standing army of the emperor, in time of peace, amounts to about 1,000,000, but it is supposed that in war 10,000,000 of soldiers may be levied. The army is, however, an inefficient, undisciplined rabble, armed with matchlocks, bows and spears. With the exception of the men stationed on the frontiers, the army is employed in preserving order throughout the provinces, and may be regarded in fact more as an armed police than a body of troops.

The imperial navy is said to consist of 1,763 vessels, of which 1,036 are employed in police duty on the great rivers, and the rest are stationed on the sea-coast. The largest vessels do not carry over 20 guns and from 200 to 400 soldiers and seamen. About 60,000 men are employed on a peace establishment. The pay of a Chinese soldier is only eight cents per day.

The Chinese as a people are extremely industrious—even to a slavish application, and their skill in various arts is wonderful to the people of more enlightened regions. Their silk and cotton fabrics, their porcelain, embroidery, dyeing, varnishing, ivory cutting, colors, paper, ink, and many other articles of art and skill, Europeans have in vain endeavored to equal. They have long been acquainted with the art of working metals; they make musical instruments, filigré work, cut and polish precious stones; engraving on wood, and printing from blocks, is with them as old as the tenth century, and their powers of copying and reproducing works of art from other countries is astonishing. Besides, their rates of wages are so low that they are often employed by strangers to produce for a comparative trifle that which in foreign countries would be extremely expensive.

In agriculture every acre of arable land is employed in raising food; even the mountains are cut into successive terraces for cultivation, and irrigated with water drawn up by machinery from the streams below. For this purpose also large reservoirs are built on the tops of the mountains to collect the rain, and bamboo pipes conduct it thence to the fields. The women rear silk worms, and make cotton goods and some woollens. The Chinese use no butter or cheese, and very little milk, simply because they cannot spare soil sufficient to sustain more cattle than are actually necessary for agricultural labor. For the same reason horses are few, and sheep are only seen on the mountains where the land cannot be ploughed. The principal animal food of the Chinese is pork. Owing also to the nature of the soil, roads are few and narrow, being little more than pathways through the fields, or lanes over and around the mountains. Wheel carriages are rare, and ornamental gardens are scarcely ever seen.

Since the opening of the ports of Canton, Amoy, Fuh-chau-fu, Ningpo and Shang-hai, by treaty with England in 1842, the maritime commerce of China has greatly increased; yet the internal trade is by far the most important. It is carried on through the empire by means of the rivers and canals; and thence from various trading posts on the northern, western, and south-western frontiers, into Russia, Turkestan, and Hindoostan. Prior to the British treaty the whole maritime trade was monopolized by a privileged class at Canton, called the "Hong-Merchants," and all foreign trade was conducted through them; no foreigner was permitted to trade with the natives, except through this channel; and none were permitted to reside with their families at Canton. By this treaty, however, all these restrictions are removed; foreign merchants now trade with whom they please; five ports are opened to them instead of one, and their families are permitted to reside in the country. Tea is the principal article of export; but besides this, a large export trade is carried on in the articles of Nan-king cloth, porcelain, rhubarb, musk, ginger, mercury, zinc, borax, shawls, mother-of-pearl, tortoise-shell, ivory goods, and many other articles. The imports are chiefly cloths and woollen stuffs, furs, gold and silver ware, glass, mirrors, lead, coral, cochineal, prussian blue, cobalt, wines, clocks and watches, gun-powder, sandal-wood, ebony, ivory, tin, copper, bird's-nests, incense, camphor, tobacco, &c. Opium is contraband; but as all classes use it to a great extent, it is smuggled in enormous quantities, and is even the most valuable of all the imports. In 1836, so many as 26,018 chests were imported, valued at \$17,106,903. The value of edible bird's-nests imported from the islands of India and the peninsula of Malacca is said to exceed one million and a half dollars annually. Ginseng is also largely imported.

The principal seat of the Chinese trade with Russia is at Kiachta, and the Mongolian frontier establishment at Maimaichin. Second in importance to that emporium is the commerce maintained at Khokand by caravans from Orenburg. The Chinese and Usbeck merchants from Turkestan and H'lassa, assemble at these points to meet the Russian traders, who carry on a valuable traffic. From these regions, as well as north-western China, small parties of native merchants also start for Semipalatinsk and Troisk in Siberia, where a similar, but not such an extensive traffic, takes place. A great deal of illicit bartering has existed to the east of Kiachta, between the nomades of the respective frontiers, and often indirectly by European merchants. The commerce carried on at Kiachta, however, is a mere barter trade; tea is the principal export, and woollens the chief import. The value of imports to Northern Asia, declared by Russia, in 1840, was 3,615,130 Russian dollars; and of exports, 6,892,952, of which about 11-12ths was absorbed, either directly or indirectly, in the Chinese trade. The native statements on this subject are very vague, and as the Chinese merchants find ways and means to smuggle a great deal, the custom-house returns cannot be fully relied upon.

The commerce between the United States and China is second only to that between Great Britain and China; and in all respects the Americans are on as beneficial a footing as the most favored nations, and have their immunities secured by a treaty with the court of Pe-king. The declared value of this trade, for a series of years, is exhibited in the annexed table:

YEAR.	IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES.	EXPORTS FROM U. STATES.		
		Domestic Produce.	Foreign Produce.	Total.
1838-9 .....	\$3,678,509 .....	\$430,464 .....	\$1,103,137 .....	\$1,533,601
1840-1 .....	3,985,338 .....	715,322 .....	485,494 .....	1,200,816
1842-3 .....	4,385,566 .....	1,755,393 .....	663,565 .....	2,418,958
1845-6 .....	6,593,831 .....	1,178,188 .....	153,533 .....	1,331,741
1846-7 .....	5,533,343 .....	— .....	— .....	2,708,655

The increase in the amount, both of imports and exports, it will be seen, has been very rapid: having nearly doubled in the eight years ending 30th June, 1847; and the exports, which in 1838-9, consisted of only one-fourth domestic produce, in 1845-6, are represented in the ratio of eight domestic and one foreign; and it is probable that at the present time the difference in favor of the United States is much wider. This is the result of the Atlantic trade. The addition of the vast territories on the Pacific to the Union, and their geographical position in relation to the Chinese ports, must be looked upon as highly favorable to a more direct commercial intercourse between the two nations; and the establishment of a commercial communication across the Isthmus of Panama, will no doubt greatly extend the trade, not only with China, but with the whole congeries of islands which stud the Pacific. These, however, are affairs belonging to the future; but there cannot be a doubt that before the lapse of many years, when railways shall extend from San Francisco, Monterey, and other Pacific ports, to the Atlantic states; when steam navigation has been fully established on the Pacific, and the isthmian difficulty has been overcome, the commerce between the two nations will be infinitely extended, and surpass that of all other countries. Already, indeed, the United States take one-fourth of all the tea exported; the quantity received in 1846-7, was 18,886,287; and the whole quantity exported to other nations, not quite 58,000,000 of pounds.

The public works of China infinitely surpass those of any other country in magnitude, if not in importance and skill. The "Great Wall" has been long considered as one of the mightiest of national undertakings. It extends from the shores of the Yellow Sea westward along the borders of Pe-che-le, Shan-si, and Shen-si, 1,500 miles, ending in rocks and deserts almost impassable. It is formed of an embankment, encased in stone work about 20 feet wide and 30 feet high, along the plains and valleys, where it is also strengthened by square detached towers, at the distance of a bow-shot from each other. There are numerous gates, which are also strongly-fortified and garrisoned; and at the east end is a large bulwark and fort, which command the sea, and at the same time serve as a conspicuous landmark to the sailor.

The "Imperial Canal," or *Yun-ho*, extends from Tien-tsin on the Pei-ho, to Hang-chau-fu, on the Yangtsz'-kiang, a distance of 700 miles. It is 200 feet wide, built with flood-gates, but no locks; and, in connection with certain rivers, gives an inland water communication from Pe-king to Canton, interrupted only by a single mountain-range, across which is the celebrated pass of Meilan, for the construction of which, the Mandarin who accomplished it was honored with a statue in one of the neighboring temples.

Other important public works have been erected for the purpose of commanding water for irrigation, and to prevent inundation. Their bridges over rapid streams and broad estuaries are of solid granite, and evince great skill and perseverance in their construction.

The division of China into 18 provinces, has been alluded to in a preceding section. We will now exhibit the extent and population of each.

		Provinces.	Area in Sq. M.	Pop. in 1812.	Pop. to Sq. M.	Capitals.*	
Northern.		PE-CHE-LE, or Chihli.....	53,949	27,990,874	475	Pau-ting-fu. †	
		SHAN-TUNG.....	65,104	28,958,765	444	Tsi-nan-fu.	
		SHAN-SI.....	55,268	14,004,210	252	Tai-yuen-fu.	
		HO-NAN.....	65,104	23,037,171	420	Kai-fung-fu.	
Eastern.		KIANG-SU.....	Kiang-nan {	45,500	37,843,501	850	Kiang-ning-fu.
		NGAN-HWUI.....		48,461	34,163,059	705	Ngan-king-fu.
		KIANG-SI.....	Kiang-nan {	72,176	33,426,999	422	Nan-chang-fu.
		CHIH-KIANG.....		39,150	26,256,784	671	Hang-chau-fu.
Central.		FUH-KIEN... (with Formosa,).....	53,480	14,777,410	276	Fuh-chau-fu.	
		HUPEH.....	Hou-Hwang, {	70,450	27,370,093	389	Wu-chang-fu.
		HUNAN.....		74,320	18,652,507	255	Chang-sha-fu.
		SHEN-SI.....		67,400	10,207,256	163	Sing-an-fu.
Southern.		KAN-SUH.....		86,608	15,193,125	175	Lan-chau-fu.
		SZ'-CHUEN.....		166,800	21,435,678	128	Ching-tu-fu.
		KWANG-TUNG... (with Hai-nan,).....		79,456	19,174,030	241	Kwang-chau-fu.
		KWANG-SI.....		78,250	7,313,895	93	Kwei-lin fu.
		KWEI-CHAU.....		64,554	5,283,219	82	Kwei-yang-fu.
		YUN-NAN.....		107,969	5,561,320	51	Yun-nan-fu.
Total.....			1,297,999	360,659,901	263	PE-KING.	

\* The names of the capitals are from Williams' "Middle Kingdom." The names of places in China are spelt in various ways, and it is always difficult, and sometimes impossible, to express Oriental names by Roman letters, and therefore each foreign nation spells them differently.

† It is a remarkable fact that the Chinese cities have no proper names, but are all distinguished by the addition of *fu*, *chan*, or *hien*, of which they are capitals. Canton, for instance, is Kwang-chau-fu, i. e. capital of Kwang-tung, &c. In consequence of there having been in China, occasionally, several simultaneous kingdoms, or from the circumstance of the court having several times changed its residence, the different capitals have received names indicative of their position; as *Pe-king*, the north court; *Nan-king*, the south court; and *Tung-king*, the east court.



PE-KING, (North Court,) the capital of the empire, in the province of Chihli, about 26 miles only from the Great Wall, (in latitude  $39^{\circ} 54' 13''$  N., and longitude  $116^{\circ} 27' E.$ .) stands on a sandy plain. It is about 25 miles in circumference, and surrounded by high castellated walls, outside of which is a wet ditch. It is composed of two distinct cities—King-sz' (i. e. capital of the court,) called also the Tartar city, and Lao-sz', (old town.) The first is inhabited chiefly by Manchus, and the latter by Chinese. Some of the gates are lofty and strong, and surmounted with towers. The streets are generally wide, and in straight lines: they are unpaved, but clean and well-kept. The houses are low, often of one story, and are built of brick and tiled. The shops are handsomely decorated, and the brilliancy and variety of the goods give them a gay appearance. The finest buildings are the temples, which are spacious and magnificent, adorned with columns and stairs of white marble. The streets and houses of the Chinese town are very inferior. There are besides 12 large suburbs without the walls, each extending about two miles in length. The population of Pe-king is variously stated at between 600,000 to 3,000,000, but Mr. Williams considers that 2,000,000 is about the probable amount. The Tartar city is composed of three towns each within the other, surrounded by its own wall. The innermost is the Tsu-kin-ching, or Imperial palace, about two miles in circuit, and in the form of a parallelogram, surrounded with strong walls 30 feet high, built of brick and covered with yellow tiles. It is composed of numerous buildings, containing halls, temples, &c., and the imperial gardens. The second enclosure, called Whang-ching, contains numerous large gardens, with artificial lakes, and hills, temples, and halls, and is principally inhabited by people in the service of the court. Pe-king is distinguished by its numerous public institutions, resembling those of Europe, notwithstanding the great difference interposed by Chinese habits, manners, and customs. It receives its supplies from the southern provinces by means of the great canal and the rivers of Chihli, which form the channels of a very active commerce. The Imperial summer palace in the neighborhood of the city is one of the most magnificent structures in the world, and the lands about it, measuring 60,000 acres, are diversified with artificial lakes, canals, hills, valleys, rocks, and islands, which are occupied by arbors, forests, pavilions, and every object most agreeable to the sight.

NAN-KING, (South Court,) stands on a branch of the Yangtsz'-kiang, 570 miles south by east of Pe-king. The area enclosed by walls is much larger than that of Pe-king, but the present city only occupies one corner of the enclosure. Reduced, however, as it is, it still continues to be one of the principal manufacturing towns of the empire. Its silks, cottons, and paper, are preferred to all others, and it is from here that the *nankeen* of commerce is brought. Learning also continues to flourish, and more physicians are manufactured in Nan-king than in any other city. Its principal and most celebrated building is a pagoda or octagonal tower, of nine stories, ascended by 884 steps. The material is a fine white tile, which being painted in various colors, has the appearance of porcelain, and all the parts are so neatly joined as to appear to form only one piece. The galleries are filled with images, and set round with bells, which tinkle in the wind, and on the top is a large pine-apple shaped ornament, consisting, as the Chinese say, of solid gold. Population, 450,000.

CANTON, (*Kwang-chau-fu*.) is situated in latitude  $23^{\circ} 7' 10''$  N., and longitude  $113^{\circ} 14' 30''$  E., on Pearl river, 100 miles from the sea, and surrounded by canals, branches of rivers, rice fields, and towering barren

hills. It is a very ancient city, and was recently the sole emporium of British and American commerce with China. The city is built in the usual Chinese style, square and regular, surrounded by high walls and pierced with gates. It is divided into the old and new cities by a transverse wall, but the suburbs are fully as large as the enclosed parts. The factories are outside the walls, on the bank of the river. There are about 600 streets in Canton; few of the houses exhibit any splendor; the dwellings of the poor are miserable and crowded, and even in the houses of the wealthy there is little comfort. The governor's palace is a spacious, but by no means elegant building. The other public buildings and temples are numerous. The population has been variously estimated at 750,000 and 1,500,000. Many thousands of people live continually on the water, in a sort of floating houses, ranged in lines like streets. MACAO is a Portuguese town, situated on a peninsula nine miles in circumference, at the southern extremity of a large island, (*Heang-shan*,) formed by two branches of the river. It is a handsome, well-built city, and the population is estimated at 20,000. Macao is near the sea, just within the entrance of the great western channel of the Gulf of Canton. It has an excellent harbor, but large ships are obliged to lie in the roads, which are very much exposed. The "Bocca Tigris," or proper mouth of the river, lies to the north of Macao road about 50 miles by the navigable channel of the gulf.

AMOI, (or "Hai-mun," i. e. the gate or harbor of Hai,) is a most important port, and 150 years ago was the seat of a large foreign commerce. It is situated in latitude  $24^{\circ} 40' N.$ , and longitude  $118^{\circ} 20' E.$ , upon the south-western corner of the Island of Amoy, at the mouth of the Dragon River. The island is about 40 miles in circumference, and contains scores of large villages besides the city. The scenery within the bay is picturesque, caused partly by the numerous islands which define it, some of them surmounted by pagodas or temples, and partly by the high barren hills behind the city, and the bustling crowds of vessels in the harbor before it. The entire circuit of the city and suburbs is eighty miles, containing a population of 300,000. Few cities are more favorably situated for access, and the harbor is one of the best on the coast; but communication with the interior is inferior to any other of the five ports.

FUH-CHAU-FU is situated in latitude  $26^{\circ} 5' N.$ , and longitude  $118^{\circ} 20' E.$ , on the north side of the Min, 34 miles from its mouth, and 9 from Pagoda Island, where the ships anchor. The city lies in a plain surrounded by an amphitheatre of hills, and the suburbs extend from the walls, three miles, to the banks. It is not a grand city, but has numerous bridges communicating with the islands of the river, and canals wind around the country in every direction. The official residences are numerous, but there is nothing to distinguish them from the better class of houses. One-half of the population, which numbers 600,000, is said to be addicted to the opium pipe. The island in the river is densely settled by a trading population, numbering 20,000. Fishing boats are numerous on the river, many of which are furnished with cormorants trained to assist their masters in procuring fish. The neighboring villages are entirely agricultural. Min-ngan is the only town on the river, below Fuh-chau-fu, of any consideration.

NINGPO is admirably situated for trade, at the junction of three streams, in latitude  $29^{\circ} 55' N.$ , and longitude  $121^{\circ} 22' E.$  The united rivers flow on to the ocean, 11 miles distant, under the name of Tatsieh. The population is about 400,000. Ningpo contains many public buildings and temples, but does not exhibit much grandeur, and would all be unimportant if not for their

usefulness. The most striking building is the "Tien-fung-tah," (i. e. heavenly-conferred pagoda,) or Tower of Ningpo, a hexagonal seven storied building, upwards of 160 feet high, which, according to the annals of the city, was first erected 1,100 years ago. CHINHAI, at the mouth of the river, is strongly fortified, and commands the passage. Its environs were the scene of a severe engagement between the Chinese and English, in October, 1841. It is the place where merchant ships report when proceeding up the river.

The Chusan Archipelago belongs to the department of Ning-po, and forms a single district, of which Ting-hai is the capital. The southern limits of the whole group is Quesan, or Kiu-shan Islands, in latitude  $29^{\circ} 21'$  N., and longitude  $122^{\circ} 41'$  E. The total number of islands is over one hundred. The town of Ting-hai lies on the southern side of Chau-shan, or Boat Island, the largest of them all, and which gives its name to the whole group. The harbor of Ting-hai is one of the best, and is accessible by three or four passages.

SHANG-HAI is the largest sea-port in Kiang-su, and it is likely, ere long, to become one of the leading emporia in Asia. It lies on the northern shore of the Wu-sung river, about 14 miles from its mouth, in latitude  $31^{\circ} 10'$  N., and longitude  $121^{\circ} 30'$  E., at the junction of the Hwang-pu with it: and by means of both streams, communicates with several large cities on the Great Canal. Shang-hai is a walled town three miles in circuit, through which six gates open into extensive suburbs. The population is estimated at 250,000. The banks of the river are covered with dwellings, temples, shops, &c. The native trade here is probably larger than at any other city in the empire, and nearly a thousand junks have been counted at one time lying in the Hwang-pu, east of the town.

China contains many other cities and large towns, but these, however important to the natives and the imperial government, have never acquired a foreign fame, nor been visited by any other travellers than a few Catholic missionaries. The kingdom is said to contain, altogether, 1,572 towns, 2,796 temples, 3,158 bridges, 10,809 public buildings, 765 lakes, and 14,607 mountains; all specially enumerated and described by Chinese authors. Large flourishing cities are found only where there is ready water communication with other places. The greatest sameness exists in all the towns. In the largest towns are a few well-paved streets, lined with shops; but most of the streets are very narrow, extremely dirty, and lined with mere hovels. The suburbs of many cities are much larger than the cities themselves; and it is not unusual to see a large walled space without houses, where there was formerly a city, village, and hamlets. They have often a fine appearance at a distance, but internally they are only a mass of houses, irregularly clustered together, without furniture or comforts, and filthy in the extreme. The grandeur of the natural scenery is often striking. Commanding situations are chosen for temples, which serve likewise for taverns, stages, public halls, and gambling-houses. The building of houses is regulated by law, and none of them is allowed to exceed a certain size. Public buildings have generally little to recommend them.

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## MANCHURIA.

MANCHURIA comprises all the most eastern portion of the high table-land of Central Asia, and lies between the latitudes  $42^{\circ}$  and  $58^{\circ}$  N., and between the longitudes  $120^{\circ}$  and  $142^{\circ}$  E. It is bounded north by the Yablonoi range,

which separates it from Asiatic Russia; east by the channel of Tartary and sea of Japan; south by Corea and the Gulf of Pe-che-le; south-west by the Great Wall; west by Mongolia and the Sialkoi mountains; and north-west by the Kerlon river and Daourian mountains. The area of this vast region is probably 700,000 square miles.

Most of this territory is a wilderness. Manchuria is comprised mostly in the valleys of the Songari and Sagalien rivers and their tributaries in the north, and the Liau River in the south. There are three principal mountain chains: the Sih-hih-tih mountains extend from Corea along the sea-coast, eastward to the mouth of the Sagalien, rising on an average 4,500 feet, and covered with forests. The eastern declivities are so near the ocean that only a narrow strip of arable land is left. The valley of the Sagalien divides this range from the Yablonoi-Khreibet and its spurs. The Sialkoi range extends over a great part of Mongolia, and forms in Manchuria three sides of the extensive valley of the Nonni, ending between the Sagalien and Songari at their junction. Most of these ranges are covered with forests, but of their height, productions and climate, little is known.

The whole country north of the desert is drained by the Sagalien or Amour, and its mighty branches. There are three considerable lakes in Manchuria: the Hurun and Pir on the west of the Sialkoi, and the Hinkai-nor in the valley of the Usuri. The region between the Songari and the sea of Japan is as much unknown as the centre of Africa. The country south-east of the desert and north of the Great Wall is drained and fertilized by the Sira-muren or Liau river, the largest branch of which, the Hwang-ho, flows through Chabar in a south-easterly course, and joins the Liau in Shing-King. The greatest part of Manchuria is covered with forests, the abode of wild animals, whose capture affords employment, clothing and food to their hunters. The rivers and coasts abound in fish, and pearls are procured at the mouth of the Sagalien. The argali and jiggetai are two species of deer peculiar to this part of Asia. The condor is the largest bird of prey, and for size and fierceness rivals its congener of the Andes. The greatest part of Shing-King and the south of Kirin is cultivated, and ginseng and rhubarb collected in large quantities. These portions support large herds of domestic animals.

Manchuria is divided into three provinces, viz: Shing-King, Kirin and Tsi-tsi-har.

SHING-KING is bounded north by Mongolia, north-east and east by Kirin, south by Corea, and west by Chabar in Chihli, including within its limits the ancient Liau-tung. It contains two departments, viz: Fungtien-fu and Kinchau-fu, subdivided into 15 districts.

KIRIN comprises all the country north-east of Shing-King. This extensive region is thinly inhabited by Manchus, settled in garrisons along the bottoms of the rivers, and by tribes having affinities with them, who subsist principally by hunting and fishing, and acknowledge their fealty to the emperor by a tribute of peltry, but who have no officers of government placed over them. In winter they nestle together in kraals like the bushmen, and subsist upon their summer's fishing. Kirin is divided into three departments or commandaries, viz: Kirin-ula or the garrison of Kirin, Petune, and Changchun-ting. The island of Tarakai or Sagalien lies off the coast, from which it is divided only by a narrow strait. The island seems to be in a kind of joint occupation, the southern half being inhabited by Japanese.

TSI-TSI-HAR comprises the north-west of Manchuria, extending about 400

miles from east to west, and 1,200 from north to south. The greatest part of it is occupied by the valley of the Nonni, and its area of about 200,000 square miles is mostly an uninhabited, mountainous wilderness. It is divided into six commanderies, viz : Tsitsihar, Hulau, Putek, Merguen, Sagalien-ula and Hurun-pir, whose officers have control over the tribes within their limits. Of these, Sagalien-ula is the chief town in the north-east districts, and is used by the government of Pe-king as a penal settlement.

The climate of Manchuria is such as to prevent the country from being thickly settled. It is described as more severe than that of Moscow. "Of all savage regions," says a resident, "this takes a distinguished rank for the aridity of the soil and rigor of the climate. On his entrance the traveller remarks the barren aspect of most of the hills and the nakedness of the plains, where not a tree nor a thicket, and hardly a slip of herb is to be seen. The natives are superior to any Europeans I have seen for their powers of eating; beef and pork abound on their tables, and I think dogs and horses too, under some other name; rich people eat rice, the poor are content with boiled millet or with another grain called hac-bam, about thrice the size of millet and tasting like wheat, which I never saw elsewhere. The vine is cultivated, but must be covered from October to April; the grapes are so watery that a hundred litres of juice produce by distillation only forty of poor spirit. The mulberry does not grow here, but the leaves of a tree resembling an oak tree are used to rear wild silk-worms, and this is a considerable branch of industry. The people relish the worms as food after the cocoons have been boiled, drawing them out with a pin, and sucking the whole until nothing but the pellicle is left."

The administration of Manchuria consists of a supreme civil government at Moukden, and three provincial military ones; but in Shing-king the government is both civil and military. There are four boards, each under a president, whose duties are analogous to those of Pe-king, but on a greatly reduced scale. The three provinces are under as many marshals, whose subordinates rule the commanderies, and these last have garrison officers subject to them. These delegate part of their power to assistant directors or residents, who are stationed in every town. On the frontier posts the officers have a higher grade, and report directly to the marshals or their lieutenants. All the officers, both civil and military, are Manchus, and a great portion of them belong to the imperial clan, or are intimately connected with it. The Manchus are somewhat civilized; they possess even a spoken and written language, essentially different from that of the Chinese or any other nation of Central Asia, and have many radical sounds which bear a close affinity to those of the languages of Europe. They belong to the Tongoose race, and are divided into several tribes, differing slightly in degree of civilization. They are more robust in their figures, but have less expressive countenances than the Chinese, and their women have not their feet cramped or distorted. The Daourians or Ducheri, who possess a large portion of the banks of the Amour, consist of Manchus mixed with Mongols. The Manchus generally, however, appear to be a rude, half civilized people, and their conquest of China has greatly injured their native country, as the leading families and ambitious individuals have naturally followed the court. They have neither temples nor idols, but worship one Supreme Being, whom they style the emperor of heaven; yet their religion appears to have some affinity to Shamanism.

MOUKDEN is the seat of the supreme government. As the metropolis of Manchuria it is also known as Shing-King (the affluent capital.) It lies in latitude  $41^{\circ} 59' 30''$  N., and longitude  $123^{\circ} 37'$  E. The town is surrounded by a wall ten miles in circuit, enclosing another wall which separates the imperial residence from the town—this part of the city is three miles in circuit. The palace and the buildings connected with it, the government offices and courts, and the grounds within it, are all arranged on a plan similar to those of Pe-king. It was called Moukden, which signifies flourishing, by the Manchu monarchs, in 1631, when they made it the seat of their government, and the emperors have since done everything in their power to enlarge and beautify it, but only with partial success. *Hinking*, 60 miles east, is one of the favored places, from its having been the family residence of the Manchu monarchs, and the burial place of their ancestors. The circuit of the walls is about three miles. *Kin-chau* is the port of Moukden, and carries on a considerable trade in cattle, pulse and drugs. The harbor is shallow and exposed to the south gales. *Kaichan*, another port on the gulf, possesses a better harbor, but is not so much frequented. Most of the other towns have no claim to any other appellation than garrisons or hamlets. *Kirin-ula-hotun* is the capital of the province of Kirin; and *Tsitsihar-hotun* the capital of that of Tsitsihar. The first is a paltry place, but contains some tombs of the emperor's ancestors, and has long been a place of occasional pilgrimage.

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## CHINESE COLONIES.

THE Colonies of China, or those portions of the empire under the immediate control of the Li-fan-Yuen, or Foreign Office, are Mongolia, Ili, and Tibet.

### MONGOLIA.

According to the statistics of the empire, Mongolia comprises a region lying between  $35^{\circ}$  and  $52^{\circ}$  N. latitude, from longitude  $82^{\circ}$  to  $123^{\circ}$  E. It is bounded on the north by the Russian Provinces; north-east and east by Manchuria; south by China Proper; and west by Cobdo and Ili. Its length from east to west is 1,700 miles, and its greatest breadth 1,000, inclosing an area of 1,400,000 square miles, and supporting an estimated population of 2,000,000.

Mongolia is described as an elevated plain, almost destitute of wood or water. The central part is occupied by the great sandy desert of Gobi, which stretches in a north-east direction about 1,200 miles, with a breadth ranging from 500 to 700 miles, a barren steppe, having comparatively few fertile tracts, and stunted trees, and destitute for the most part of water. The chief mountains in this region are the Altai, and its various subordinate branches, the Ala-shan and the In-shan. The rivers of Mongolia are numerous, chiefly in the north, belonging to the basins either of the Irtish or the Sagalien. Connected with the former are the Selenga, Orkhon, and Tola, which unite their streams and flow into Lake Baikal. The Kerlon and Onon are tributaries of the Sagalien, and flow in a north-east direction. In the south are the Sira-muren and its branches, which unite with the Liau river, and several rivers in the region of Koko-nor, some pouring their waters into isolated lakes, and others bearing their tribute to

the Hwang-ho. The chief lakes south of the desert are Koko-nor, or Azure Sea, and the Oling and Dzaring, near the sources of the Hwang-ho. Inner Mongolia has no lakes of importance; but Cobdo, in the north-west, is a country of lakes, the principal being the Upsa-nor and Altai-nor, in the east, Alak-nor on the south, and the Iki-aral, near which lies the town of Cobdo.

The climate of Mongolia is excessively cold. In the parts bordering on Chihli the people make their houses underground to avoid the inclemency of the season. The soil in and upon the confines of the high land is poor, and unfit for cultivation; but millet, barley, and wheat might be raised north and south, if it were not that the people are adverse to an agricultural life. The space between Gobi and Russia, about 150 miles wide, is warmer than the desert itself, and supports a larger population than the south sides. Cattle are numerous in the hilly tracts, but in the desert wild animals and birds hold undisputed sway.

The principal divisions of Mongolia are, Inner Mongolia, lying between the Wall and south of the desert; Outer Mongolia, between the desert and the Altai Mountains, and reaching from the Inner Hingan to the Tien-shan; the country about Koko-nor, between Kansuh, Sz'-chuen, and Tibet, and the dependencies of Uliasutai, lying north-westward of the Kalkas Khanates. The whole of this region has been included under the comprehensive name of Chinese Tartary.

INNER MONGOLIA, or *Nui-Mungku*, is divided into six corps and twenty-four tribes, which are again placed under forty-nine standards, or khochoun, each of which generally includes 2,000 families, commanded by hereditary princes, or dzassaks. The principal tribes are the Kortchin and Ortous. The whole of Inner Mongolia is gradually improving under the industry of Chinese settlers and exiles, and the fostering care of the imperial government.

OUTER MONGOLIA, or *Wai-Mungku*, is an extensive tract lying north of Inner Mongolia, as far as Russia. The desert of Gobi occupies the southern half of the region. It is divided into four *lu*, or circuits, each of which is governed by a Khan or prince. The four Khanates constitute one "aimak," or tribe, subdivided into 86 standards, each of which is restricted to a certain territory where they wander about at pleasure. They are devoted to Buddhism, and the lamas have great power in their hands. Most of the real power over the Kalkas, one of the most conspicuous of these Khanates, indeed, is in the hands of a high priest, called "Kutuktu," living at Kurun, the largest town in Mongolia. They render an annual tribute to the Emperor, of horses, camels, sheep, and other animals, or their skins, and receive presents in return of many times its value, so that they are kept in subjection by constant bribing. An energetic government, however, is not wanting. The supreme tribunal is at Urga; it is called the "yamoun," and has civil and military jurisdiction, and administers justice. Letters are encouraged among them by the Manchus, but with little success. These tribes produce nothing but for their own immediate wants, and most of their cloths, utensils, and arms are procured of the Chinese. Their livelihood depends chiefly on their herds and hunting. The trade with Russia is carried on at Kiakhla, close to the border, and is superintended by Manchu officers, appointed from Pe-king to collect the duties. The exports consist of Russian habit-cloths, velveteens, camlets, linen, leather, skins, furs; fire-arms, cutlery, mirrors, watches, and

other fancy articles. These goods are always exchanged at a fixed valuation, for tea and preserves, lacquered-ware, nankeens, and silks, and opium in small quantities.

ULIASUTAI, in the western portion of Mongolia, comprises the two divisions of Cobdo and Ulianghai. Cobdo lies to the north-west and Ulianghai to the north-east, both adjoining the Russian frontier. The first is divided into 11 tribes and 31 standards, and in the second, the tribes are arranged into 21 *tso-ling*. These are under military officers, but manage their own internal affairs. The Chinese rule over these tribes is conducted on the same principles as that over the other Mongols, and they all render fealty to the Emperor through the chief resident at Uliasutai. The tribes resemble the American Indians in their habits, disputes, and modes of life.

KOKO-NOR, or Tsing-hai, though not included by Chinese geographers in Mongolia, is mostly inhabited by Mongols, and its plan of government is the same as that over the other Mongol tribes. It is a country of lakes. The Azure Sea is the largest, and Chinese maps delineate it as 190 miles long by 60 wide, and its borders level and settled. The province is situated immediately north and west of Shen-si and Sz'-chuen. It is occupied by Tourgouths, Hoshoids, Kalkas, and other tribes, who are arranged under 20 standards, and governed by a Manchu general residing at Sining-fu, in Kansuh. The productions consist of grain and other vegetables raised along the river-bottoms, and margins of the lakes; sheep, cattle, horses, camels, &c. The yak is used extensively for carrying burdens. The trade at Sining-fu is large. The Province of KANSUH, in respect of government, &c., may also be considered as forming part of Mongolia. Its principal towns are Yuh-mun-hien, Ngansi, Barkoul, Oroumtsi, &c. These towns have been built to facilitate communication, and some of them have risen to importance as trading posts.

### III.

That part of the empire called Ili is a vast region, lying on each side of the Tien-shan, or Celestial Mountains, and including a tract nearly as large as Mongolia, and not much more susceptible of cultivation. The limits extend from 36° to 49° N, and from longitude 71° to 96° E. It is divided by the Tien-shan into two parts called "lu," or circuits, viz.: Tien-shan-peh-lu and Tien-shan-nan-lu, or north and south of the Celestial Mountains. The former is commonly denominated Songaria, from the Songares its former rulers, and the latter is known as Little Bokara, or Eastern Turkestan. Ili, taken as a whole, may be regarded as an inland isthmus, extending south-west from the south of Siberia, off between the Gobi and Caspian deserts, till it reaches the Hindoo-Kush, leading down to the valley of the Indus. The former of these deserts encloses it on the east and south, and the other on the west and north-west, separated from each other by the Belûr-tag and the Muz-tag ranges, which join with the Celestial Mountains that divide the isthmus itself into two parts. These deserts united are equal to the extent of Sahara, but are not as arid and tenantless. Little is known of the topography, productions, or civilization of the tribes, but the efforts of the Chinese have been systematically directed to developing the agricultural resources of the country, by stationing troops in every part, who cultivate the soil, and by banishing criminals thereto, who are obliged to work for, and assist the soldiers. The productions are numerous. Wheat, barley, rice, and millet are the chief grains; tobacco, cotton, and



fruits are grown ; herds of horses, camels, cattle and sheep, afford means of locomotion and food for the people, while the mountains and lakes supply game and fish. The inhabitants are composed mostly of Eleuths, Mongols, Manchus, Chinese, and several native tribes. The government is under the control of the Manchu military officers residing at Ilí.

TIEN-SHAN-PEH-LU is divided into three commandaries. Ilí on the west, Tarbagatai on the north, and Kur-kara-usu on the east, between Ilí and Oroumtsi, in Kansuh. The districts of Tarbagatai and Kur-kara-usu are small compared with Ilí.

TIEN-SHAN-NAN-LU, or southern circuit of Ilí, also named Sin-kiang or new frontier, has been called Little Bokhara and Chinese or Eastern Turkestan, by foreigners. It is less fertile than the Northern Circuit, the greatest part of its area being rugged mountains and barren wastes. The Tarim flows through it from west to east, from the Belûr-tag to Lop-nor, a lake lying on the edge of the desert. No other river basins of any size are found within the circuit. The climate is exceedingly dry, and its barrenness is owing more to the want of moisture than to the nature of the soil. The productions of the valley of Tarim comprise most of the grains and fruits of Southern Europe. The mountains and marshes contains jackals, tigers, bears, wolves, &c. Gold, copper, and iron, are brought from this region ; but as articles of trade they are less important than the sal-ammoniac, saltpetre, sulphur, and asbestos, obtained in the volcanic region on the east of the Celestial mountains. The present divisions of this circuit are regulated by the position of the " eight Mahomedan cities," viz : Harashar, Kuchê, Ushí, (including Sairim and Bai,) Oksu, Khoten, Yarkand, Cashgar, and Yingshar. The superior officers reside at Yarkand, but the southern circuit is divided into four minor governments at Harashar, Ushí, Yarkand, and Khoten.

The government of Ilí differs in some respects from that of Mongolia, where religion is partly called in to aid the state. In the northern circuit the authority is strictly military. The supreme command of the whole of Ilí is entrusted by the colonial office to a Manchu, " tsiang-kiun," or military governor-general, resident at Kuldsha, who has under him two councillors to take cognizance of civil cases, and 34 residents scattered about in both circuits. The governor also commands the troops of Kansuh, but has nothing to do with the civil jurisdiction. The revenue is derived from a capitation tax and tithes on produce. There are no transit duties as in China, but custom-houses are established at the frontier trading ports. The character of the inhabitants north of the Tien-shan is rendered unlike that of those dwelling in the southern circuit by the diversity in their language and nomadic habits, more than by the sway religious rites and allegiance have over them. The language generally used in the south is the Jag-hatai Turki of the Kalmucks. The Usbecks constitute the majority of the people, but Eleuths and Kalmucks are everywhere intermixed. The Tibetans have settled in Khoten, or more probably remnants still exist there of the former inhabitants.

#### BOD, OR TIBET.

The third great division of the colonial part of the Chinese Empire, that of Tibet, is the least known of all. It constitutes the most southern of the three great table-lands of Central Asia, and is surrounded with high mountains, which separate it from all contiguous regions. The Chinese call the country Si-Tsang, and divide it into " Tsien-Tsang" or Anterior Tibet,

and "Hau-Tsang" or Uterior Tibet. Tibet is bounded north-east by Kokonor; east by Sz'-chuen and Yun-nan; south by Assam, Bhotan, Nepaul, Delhi, and Lahore; west by Ladak, Badakshan, and Bokhara, and north by Gobi and Khoten. Little Tibet and Ladak, though included within its limits in the Chinese maps, have too little subjection or connection with the court of Pe-king to be reckoned among its dependencies.

Tibet is a lofty table-land, divided by mountain ranges into three distinct parts. The *first* comprises the valley of the Upper Indus. It begins at Mount Kailasa, and stretches between the Hindoo-Kush and Himalaya, comprising the whole of Little Tibet and Ladak. The Tsung-ling defines it on the north-east. The *second* consists of an extensive desert-land, commencing at Mount Kailasa, and having the Tsung-ling on the west, the Koukun on the north, and the Himalaya on the south. This high region, called Katshe or Kor-kachi, has never been traversed by intelligent travellers. Mountains stretch across it, and many rivers and lakes are found within their defiles. It is so cold that few inhabitants can live in its northern portions. The *eastern part* consists of the valley of the Yaru-tsangbu, containing in its plains most of the towns of Tibet. This part of the country consists of a succession of ridges and peaks, some of which are among the highest in the world, and the traveller crosses the narrow valleys by ropes and bridges enveloped in clouds. Mount Kailasa is 26,000 feet in elevation. The number of peaks covered with perpetual snow is not known, but exceeds that of any other part of the world of the same extent. The largest river is the Yaru-tsangbu. Its tributaries are numerous; and the volume of water which flows through the mountains into Assam, is equal to that by the Indus into Scinde. It is still a disputed question whether the Yaru-tsangbu joins the Brahmapûtra, or the Irawaddy; but the weight of geographical testimony and the size of the rivers is greatly in favor of the former.

Tibet, especially the central part, is a country of lakes. The largest is Tengki-nor, situated in the midst of stupendous mountains. The regions north of it contain many isolated lakes: two of the largest are Bouka and Kara, the waters of which are salt. Palti is a large lake north of H'lassa, remarkable for its ring shape, the centre being occupied by a large island, around which the waters flow in a channel 30 or more miles wide. On the island is a nunnery, called the palace of the Holy Sow, said to be the finest in the country. In Little Tibet, south of Khoten, are a number of lakes. The sacred lakes of Manasarowa and Ravan-hrad form the head waters of the Indus.

The climate of Tibet is characterized by its purity and excessive dryness. The valleys are hot, and from May to October the sky is clear in the table-lands. In the valleys the moisture and temperature are favorable to vegetation, the harvest being gathered before the gales and snows set in, which are after October. The effects of the air resemble the kamsin in Egypt; the trees wither, and the leaves may be ground to powder; planks and beams break, and the inhabitants cover the timbers and wood-work of their houses with coarse cottons to preserve them from destruction. Mutton, exposed in the open air, becomes so dry that it may be powdered, and when once powdered may be preserved for years. This flesh-bread is a common food in Tibet. No salt is used in its preparation, and it is used without any further dressing or cooking.

The productions of Tibet consist principally of domestic and wild animals;

but it is very meagre in vegetable products, presenting in this a strong contrast with Nepaul and Bhotan, where vegetable life flourishes most luxuriantly. Sheep and goats are reared in immense flocks; the "yak," or grunting ox, is raised for carriage, and all domestic animals, including cattle, horses, buffaloes, &c., are common. There is comparatively little agriculture. The variety of wild animals, birds, and fishes, is very great, and the brute creation is generally clothed in a thicker and more rugged covering than elsewhere. The Tibetan goat affords the shawl-wool which is so highly prized for the manufacture of garments in all nations.

Fruits are abundant; and barley and the other grains, which are cultivated by the women, are the chief objects of the farmer. Rice is cultivated near the lakes. Rhubarb, assafetida, ginger, madder and safflower are collected and prepared. The mineral productions are exceedingly rich. Gold is found in the streams, and forms a constant article of export; lead, silver, copper and cinnabar are also dug out of the ground, but iron is not abundant. Tincal and crude borax are gathered on the borders of a small lake, where also rock salt can be obtained to any extent. Precious stones are very plentiful.

The degree of skill the Tibetans have attained in manufactures, the mechanic arts and general civilization, though inferior to the Chinese, is superior to that of the Mongols. They appear to be mild and humane, and to possess more religious sense than the Chinese. They belong to the Mongol race. They distinguish five sorts of people among themselves, viz: the Bhotans, the inhabitants of Kham or Anterior Tibet, those of Tsang, the nomads of Kor-Katshe, and the people of Little Tibet. All of them speak the Tibetan with some variations. The dress of both sexes is of wool and fur; yellow and red are the prevailing colors. The women wear many jewels, and adorn their hair with pearls. Girls braid their hair in three tresses—married women in two, and the head is protected by high velvet caps. The men wear broad brimmed coverings of various materials.

In Tibet religion is the basis of both their political and social system. It is a variety of Buddhism, and the clergy are the political rulers as well as the private directors of the whole country. Every district has its lama, or bishop. The chief of these spiritual sovereigns is the Grand or Dalai-lama, who resides at H'lassa. Next to him is the Teshu-lama who resides at Zhikatse-jung. These are both incarnations of the deity, which pass successively by transmigration from one body to another. The priests form the aristocracy of the country; they reside in companies in large mansions, which unite the characters of convent and palace. All the wealth of the country seems to centre in their body, while a general poverty pervades the rest of the community. A singular species of polyandry exists among the Tibetans; all the brothers born of one mother have but one wife in common, who is selected by the eldest. The religious buildings combine the triple character of temples, monasteries and palaces, and sometimes display extraordinary splendor, contrasting sadly with the rude houses of the people. That of Pootala near H'lassa, the summer residence of the Dalai-lama, is said to contain 10,000 apartments filled with gold and silver images, and to have its roof richly gilded.

Tibet is neither an independent kingdom nor a province of China; it is merely a geographical region divided in a number of districts, the majority of which pay a small tribute to the Dalai-lama, who is himself, as well as all the rest, under the protection of the emperor of China. The emperor's

residents, however, at the courts of the sovereign lamas, have of late years acquired so much influence in the internal administration of the country, that it may be regarded as now entirely dependent. The frontiers, as in other parts of the empire, are strictly guarded against the intrusion of strangers.

Education is confined to the priesthood, but the women, who conduct much of the traffic, also learn arithmetic and writing. The language is alphabetical, and reads from right to left; there are two forms of the characters, "uchen" used for books, and the "umin" employed in writing, which do not differ more than the roman and the common running hand. The form of the characters shows their Sanscrit origin; but there are many consonants in the language not found in that tongue, and silent letters are not unfrequent in the written words. There are thirty consonants in the alphabet, with four additional vowel signs; each of which ends in a short *a*, as *ka, uga, cha*, which can be lengthened by a diacritical mark placed underneath. The syllables are separated from each other by a point; the accented consonant is that which follows the vowel; and others, whether before or after it, are pronounced as rapidly as possible, and not unfrequently omitted altogether in speaking. The literature of Tibet is almost wholly theological, and such works as are not of this character have probably been introduced from China. Their divisions of time, numeration, chronology and weights, have also been adopted from that country, with a few alterations.

H'ASSA, the capital of Tibet, is situated on the Dzangtsu, in latitude  $29^{\circ} 30'$  N., and longitude  $91^{\circ} 40'$  E., and is the largest town in this part of Asia. It is famous for its convents, and has been considered as the head quarters of Buddhism, and of the hierarchy of the lamas, who by means of the Dalai-lama and his subordinate the Kutuktu, exercises priestly control over all Mongolia and Tibet.

The capital of Ulterior Tibet is ZHIKATSE-JUNG, 26 miles west of H'assa, a residence of the Teshu-lama, a town of 300 or 400 houses, convents and palaces, built on an elevated plain.

The other towns are chiefly found in the valley of the Yara-tsangbu and on the borders of the lakes; but few have anything remarkable, and none are worthy of special notice.

*The large map of the empire, which is regarded by the Chinese as the best delineation of the extent and divisions of their possessions, includes within its limits two other countries besides those already described, but over which their influence is altogether nominal. These are Corea and Ladak, The former was probably placed on the map from its proximity to the capital, and its peninsular form naturally connecting it with the neighboring districts. But national vanity alone can be the motive for including the remote principality of Ladak within the imperial frontiers, for its ruler has almost no connection at all with Pe-king, and has never received Chinese troops within his borders.—(Williams I. 202—203.) This, however, is the proper place to notice them.*

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## COREA.

COREA is a peninsula lying between the Yellow Sea on the west, and the sea of Japan on the east. It is 640 miles long by 250 to 280 in width at

its northern and southern extremities, but at the neck of the peninsula it is only 140 miles wide.

The only known feature of its physical geography is the existence of a high chain of mountains which stretches through it, at a short distance from the east coast. The general inclination of the greater portion of the country is towards the Yellow Sea. The eastern coast is precipitous and rocky—the western is skirted by numerous islands. Though in the latitude of Italy, Corea is said to have a cold climate, but the soil is fertile and well cultivated. The mountains of the northern part are covered with vast forests, and their only valuable product is ginseng. The southern provinces abound in great agricultural wealth, and besides produce large quantities of hemp, tobacco, silk and fruits.

The Coreans are a well-made race, with an agreeable physiognomy, and very polished manners; the arts, the sciences and language of China have been introduced among them. The literati form a separate order in the state, and make use of the Chinese language and characters, but the vernacular tongue is quite different, and has an alphabet of its own. Their religion is the same or nearly the same as that of China.

The country forms a separate kingdom, whose ruler is absolute within his own dominions, but is nevertheless a vassal of China, and sends annual presents and ambassadors to Pe-king. The country was formerly defended from the Manchus by a great wall or rampart along its northern border, which it is said is now like that of China, falling to ruins. The Korean towns have nearly the same general appearance as those of China, but the houses are built of mud, without art, and are inconvenient.

KING-KAI-TAO, nearly in the centre of the peninsular part of the kingdom, is the capital.

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#### L A D A K, formerly MAR-YUL.

LADAK is a portion of the mountainous region situated between the Himalayas on the south, and the range of the Kara-Korum on the north, adjoining Tibet on the west, and extending from east to west about 250 miles, and 200 from north to south, but with an irregular outline, and comprising altogether a superficial area of only 30,000 square miles.

The country consists of a series of narrow valleys, which are sometimes little better than deep ravines or defiles. They are all situated at the great elevation of 11,000 to 13,000 feet above the level of the sea, and the mountains which form them rise several thousand feet higher. The general character of the surface is extreme inequality, consisting of steep and barren mountains capped with snow, and close rocky dells with rapid torrents or deep rivers rushing through them. There is accordingly little room for agricultural labor, and the proportion of available ground does not probably exceed one-fifth of the whole; and the soil, being formed of the disintegration of the rocks, is such as to be only rendered productive by an immense amount of human industry and skill. Nor is the climate more inauspicious to the labors of the husbandman, two-thirds of the year being under the influence of winter. The harvests, however, are not unproductive, the heats of summer being excessive, and vegetation rapid.

The country contains all the wild and domestic animals peculiar to this part of Asia. There are mines of sulphur in some places, and soda is found

in great plenty; lead, iron, and copper, are also abundant, but want of fuel and want of industry prevent their being wrought.

The people of Ladak are of the Tibetan stock, but a considerable number of Cashmerians have settled in the country, and produced a mixed race called "Argands." The whole population amounts to 150,000 or 180,000. There is not much wealth in the country, but what there is is equally diffused, and the great body of the people are in easy and comfortable circumstances. They pay no taxes in money, but are bound to give suit and service both domestic and military, and to furnish contributions in kind for the support of the rajah and the provincial governors. The people are in general mild and timid, frank, honest, and moral, but indolent, dirty, and addicted to intoxication. Their religion is nominally Buddhism, but is a strange mixture of metaphysics, mysticism, fortune-telling, juggling, and idolatry, and the country is infested with idle lamas.

The government is a simple despotism, but is so curiously modified by the circumstances of the people and the influence of the priests, that the rajah is possessed of very limited power. The business of the government is managed by the Khalun, or prime minister, assisted by deputies and other officers. The districts and towns are governed by inferior khaluns, or tanzins, or rajahs; and the business of the magistracy by "nar-pas," and the head men of the villages. There is no permanent military force—the peasants giving their services when required. The rajah is nominally independent, but pays tribute, disguised under the name of a present, to the government of H'lassa.

The country is divided into four principal districts, viz: Ladak, in the centre; Nobra, on the north; Zanskar, on the south; and Piti, on the south-west. LE or LEH, the capital, situated at the foot of some hills, stands in a valley, about two miles from the banks of the Sinh-kha-bab. It is enclosed by a wall, with projecting towers, but the streets are disposed without order, and the town forms a confused assemblage of houses. The palace of the Rajah is a large and lofty building, forming a conspicuous object to a person viewing the city from without.

The trade of Ladak is extensive, and a source of profit to the people, for Leh is the great thoroughfare of the caravan trade from Yarkand, H'lassa, and Russia to Cashmere, Lahore, and India. The principal article of trade is goat's wool. Much of the transportation over the mountains is done on sheep, each carrying 20 or 25 lbs. weight. Tea, tincal, silks, and Chinese manufactures come through Tibet, but the largest trade is with Yarkand. On account of the singular custom of polyandry existing in this country, women are in excess and form a valuable article of export, and are sold to the people living south, in Lahore, and other states near the Indus. Singular as it may appear, this state of social economy does not seem to be productive of jealousy, or materially to interfere with the harmony of the household.

The LOO-CHOO ISLANDS, (an insular kingdom in the Pacific,) are generally considered as a dependency of China, but whether or not the government of Pe-king exercises any authority over them, except in the exaction of a tribute, is problematical. The people are much similar to the Chinese, and are possessed of their institutions, literature, and religion. Their language differs, however, from both the Japanese and Chinese, and is, perhaps, a mixture of the two. Little, indeed, is known respecting them; and the only town ever visited by Europeans is the great seaport of Napa-kiang, on the

south-west coast of the principal island, five miles from the capital, Kien-ching. The group consists of 36 islands, all of which are small. The only one deserving of particular notice is Sulphur Island, 80 miles north of the Great Loo-choo, which contains a sulphuric volcano, that constantly emits white smoke. The MADJICOSIMA ISLANDS are also subject to the king of Loo-choo.

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## TURKESTAN, OR INDEPENDENT TARTARY.

TURKESTAN is an extensive country lying between  $36^{\circ}$  and  $51^{\circ}$  N. latitude, and  $45^{\circ}$  and  $78^{\circ}$  E. longitude, extending from east to west 1,350 miles, and from north to south 1,260. It is bounded on the north by the Russian Provinces; on the south by Afghanistan and Iran; on the east by the Chinese colony of Ili, and on the west by the Caspian Sea and the river Oural.

The greater part of the country is composed of sandy plains, intersected by a few rivers, and studded with small lakes. It generally rises from the shores of the Caspian and Aral Sea towards the south and east, on both of which sides it is enclosed by high mountains. The great plain at the foot of the mountains has an elevation of 2,000 feet, but the elevation of the desert is much less. The steppe of Kirghiz, in the north, has not everywhere a uniform surface, nor does it constitute a vast plain, as the name might be thought to imply: it is on the contrary intersected by many chains of hills, and nowhere exhibits those boundless expanses which are met with elsewhere. It is nowhere fertile, and the want of water renders the herbage scant and poor, and the general appearance is unvaried and fatiguing to the eye. It may, however, be divided into several regions, of various degrees of fertility. The most fertile district is in the north, where the meadows are rich, and the forests produce magnificent timber. The south is generally sterile, and the central regions, though containing many well-favored spots, are upon the whole unfit for an agricultural population. Shells, pebbles of diverse colors, petrifications, mollusca, and other marine remains, spread over this region at a distance from the sea, are sufficient evidence that at no very remote period the whole has been submerged, and the salt lakes everywhere studding the surface bear evidence to the same fact.

The climate of the plains and steppes of Turkestan is subject to extremes of heat and cold; the sandy face of the country producing intense heat in summer, while, on the contrary, in winter the same deserts are sometimes covered with snow, and are always cold during the night. In the steppe of Kirghiz the extremes are remarkable. Nor are these extremes the only evil: severe storms, hurricanes, and whirlwinds blow over the steppes, carrying everything that is moveable before them. In the region adjoining the Oural the temperature sometimes rises to  $145^{\circ}$  Fahr., in the sun, and to  $109^{\circ}$  in the shade; and the sand is so hot as to roast eggs. The climate, however, is generally healthy. Rain is very rare in the steppes; the ground

is consequently very dry, and in summer breaks into cracks and crevices. The seasons may be represented as follows: spring, sudden and fleeting; summer, dry and burning; autumn, rainy, gloomy, and short; and winter, long, dry, and constantly cold.

Among the mammiferous animals in the steppe, the rodentia is the most numerous; wolves inhabit caverns in the gypsum mountains and the sandy districts, and the canis corsac roams among the herds of the antelope saiga. Horses are the most valuable domestic animals in almost all the grassy steppes. Among these, the beautiful race of Argamats supply the cavalry of Khiva. Camels of both species, and sheep, frequently of good breed for wool, and some of them fat-tailed—beeves and goats, constitute the wealth of the wandering tribes. Fine wool goats are bred in Bokhara. The tiger has been found in the vicinity of the Aral, on the banks of the Sir, and the Kouvan. The wild boar is found in great numbers in the vicinity of all the rivers; the mouse in the Kirghiz steppe; and dog-geese, so called from their burrowing in the ground. The falco chrysætas builds its nest in the Kirghiz steppe. But, generally speaking, the natural productions peculiar to the country are comparatively few in number, and of little consequence.—(*Zimmerman's Memoir, &c., London, 1840.*)

The country is inhabited by a great variety of races or tribes. The Usbecks are the most numerous race occupying the low country, and consist of 32 tribes. They are of the Toorkee stock, and generally short and stout, with broad, flat foreheads, high cheek bones, thin beards, small eyes, clear and ruddy complexion, and generally black hair. The aborigines of the country are the Taujiks, or Tats. They are devoted to commerce, speak the Persian language, and are probably of Persian or Arabian origin. There is besides a great number of Persians in Turkestan, and many Jews, Hindoos, Armenian and Russian slaves. The northern parts of the country are occupied by nomadic tribes, formed by an intermixture of Kalmucks, Kazaks, and Kirghiz. Many of the tribes, however, have adopted the habits of the more improved districts, and have fixed dwellings. The northern hordes own the supremacy of Russia, which pensions their chiefs; and for greater security against their inroads, a line of strong posts is kept up between the Oural and Irtysh. The Usbecks and Taujiks of Bokhara, Khiva, Balkh, and Khokand, are Soonee Mahomedans, very strict in their profession, and even fanatical. Several tribes on the eastern borders are Shiahs, and some are idolaters. There are also Jews and Hindoos, who profess of course their paternal faith.

In all the states of Turkestan the governments are more or less despotic; but each nation or body politic is generally composed of an aggregation of clans, or *urûghs*, of which the chiefs are in many instances elected by the people. The chief administers the internal affairs of the clan, and arranges the quota of tribute and military service exacted by the general government. But these heads of clans do not unite in any assembly, nor claim the right of exercising any control over the measures of the sovereign.

The people are mostly devoted to agriculture, and are said to be industrious; but the Bokharians are distinguished above all their neighbors as manufacturers, and excel in fine cotton and silk-stuffs, hats, paper, and other articles which they produce. Bokhara has always been a great mart for Central Asia, and numerous fairs are held in the chief places. The Russians and British have a great share in this trade, and direct and extensive commercial intercourse is kept up with Cashgar, Yarkand, &c.



With Persia the trade is inconsiderable. The shawls of Kerman form the principal article of import. Silk, cotton and wool are exported. The wool of Turkestan is sent across the mountains to Cabul and the Punjab, where it is made into a coarse kind of shawl. It is procured from the Kazaks, and wandering tribes about Bokhara, who were long ignorant of its value, and still use it for the common ropes for their horses and cattle. The lamb-skins of Bokhara are celebrated in the East, and are exported to Persia, Turkey, and China. There is, however, great difficulty in transporting merchandize, owing to the unsettled state of the roads, which are infested with wandering Turcoman robbers; and the hatred which subsists between these and the peaceful population, being fostered by different religions, adds to the difficulty. The merchants purchase their goods for ready money, being afraid to risk a commercial investment across the deserts.

Turkestan has never been all subjected to the same sovereign. It may be considered as divided naturally into, 1. The "Steppe of Kirghiz," which occupies the northern part; 2. "Mawar-ul-nahar," i. e. between the rivers Amoo and Sir; 3. The "Hill Countries," along the southern and eastern borders. It is divided politically into a great number of independent states, which differ widely in extent, population, and importance; but the dominant, or at least the preponderating native powers, are the Khanates of Bokhara, Khiva, Khokand, &c.

### THE KINGDOM OF BOKHARA.

BOKHARA is an isolated kingdom of small extent in the midst of the desert. It is an open champaign country of unequal fertility. In the vicinity of its few rivers the soils are rich, but beyond them they are barren and unproductive. It lies chiefly to the north of the Amoo, but to the south-east it crosses the river and holds a supremacy over Balkh and the Khanates of Andkho and Maimuna. Its length along the Amoo is 240 miles. From Balkh to Bokhara the distance is 260 miles of nearly an entire waste. The population is estimated at 1,000,000.

The climate is salubrious and pleasant, being dry, and in winter very cold, as is usual in sandy countries. There is a constant serenity in the atmosphere, and the sky is of a bright azure blue generally without a cloud. At night the stars have an unusual lustre, and there is also a never-ceasing display of the most brilliant meteors. In winter the snow lies at Bokhara three or four months, and the spring rains are often heavy. At Balkh the heat is oppressive and the climate very unhealthy.

BOKHARA, the capital, is a place of great celebrity, tradition assigning its foundation to the age of Alexander the Great. It lies embosomed among gardens and trees, and cannot be seen from a distance. Its shape is triangular, exceeding eight miles in circuit, surrounded by a wall of earth about 20 feet high and pierced with 12 gates. Few great buildings are to be seen from the outside; but internally lofty arched bazaars, and ponderous and massive buildings, colleges, mosques and minarets, everywhere meet the eye. The city contains about 20 caravansaries and 100 ponds and wells, and is intersected by canals shaded by mulberry trees. It contains several large mosques, and not less than 366 madresses or colleges, a third

part of which are large buildings, and contain upwards of 70 or 80 students. The students are supported by a public allowance, and are entirely occupied with theology, which has here superseded all other subjects. They are quite ignorant of the history of their own country; and a more perfect set of drones, says Byrnes, were never assembled together. Population, 150,000.

SAMARCAND, the Maricanda of the Greeks, 120 miles east of Bokhara, is as ancient as the era of Alexander. It was the capital of Timour, and is still regarded with veneration by the people, and though now containing only 8,000 inhabitants, its splendid ruins of mosques and temples attest its former grandeur. The tombs of Timour and his family still remain; and the ashes of the conqueror rest beneath a lofty dome, the walls of which are beautifully ornamented with agate.

KURSHEE, 140 miles south-east of Bokhara, is a straggling town of a mile in length, with a considerable bazaar and about 10,000 inhabitants. To the north-east, 50 miles, is *Shuhr-Subz*, the birthplace of Timour and the seat of a Khan. *Balkh*, 266 miles S. S. E. of Bokhara, is one of the most ancient cities of the world. It is the ancient Bactra, said to have been built by Kyamoors or Cyrus, the founder of the Persian monarchy; and was in later times the capital of a Grecian kingdom, which was founded by the successors of Alexander. It was also the birthplace of Zoroaster and the seat of the patriarch of the Magian hierarchy. Its present population does not amount to 2,000. The ruins extend for a circuit of 20 miles; fallen mosques and decayed tombs demark its ancient magnificence. A stone of white marble is still shown in the citadel, which is said to have been the throne of Cyrus.

The above are the only towns in the country; there are some large villages and about 400 small ones. The villages are fortified with mud walls, as are also the separate farms in the cultivated portions of the country.

#### KHUNDUZ, BADAQSHAN, & c.

These states are situated east of Bokhara. KHUNDUZ occupies a valley to the south of the Amoo, lying among low hills, which extend about 30 miles east and west, and about 40 from north to south. The climate is one of extremes, but the soil produces a great variety of crops, and the mulberry and other fruits flourish. The town of the same name has a population of about 1,500 inhabitants. BADAQSHAN is situated to the east of Khûndûz, to whose meer or chief it is now subject. This celebrated country is now almost without inhabitants; it was lately overrun by the chief of Khûndûz; its ruler was dethroned, the peasantry driven out of the country, and a rabble of lawless soldiers quartered in its provinces. The natives are Tadjiks, and their language the Persian. Badakshan has acquired great note for its ruby mines, and the lapis lazuli is often found. Of its capital, Fyzabad, once so celebrated throughout the East, scarcely a vestige is left.

To the north of Khûndûz and Badakshan, and beyond the Amoo, are the small hilly states of HIZAR, KOOLAB, DURWAZ, SHOOGNAN and WUKHAN; the whole of which are mountainous. Hisar is finely watered, and is a rice country; its capital of the same name stands on a rising ground 260 miles E. S. E. of Bokhara. These states are independent, and ruled by their own chiefs. The whole population is Mahomedan.

### KHOKAND, KOKAN OR FERGHANA H.

THIS country lies north-east of Bokhara. It occupies the upper vallies of the Sir and its affluents, and is a much smaller territory than Bokhara. It is ruled by an Usbeck Khan, who claims to be of the same lineage with Baber, the founder of the Mogul dynasty. The country is celebrated for its silk and cotton goods. The Kokanese wear skull caps instead of turbans. The Khan keeps up an intercourse with Russia and Constantinople. KOKAN, on the Sir, a town about half the size of Bokhara, is the capital. The ancient capital is MARGHILAN, still a large and fine city. INDEJAN is also a town of considerable note. TASHKEND, an ancient and flourishing city, 86 miles N. N. W. of Kokan, is described by the Siberian merchants who visit it as a large town of 80,000 inhabitants. TURKESTAN, OCH, KHOJEND, &c., are also noted places. Och, at the foot of the Tukht-i-Suleiman, is frequented by numerous pilgrims, who come to pay their devotions to a small square building at the top of the mountain. Tradition says that Solomon sacrificed a camel on this spot, where the blood is still shown on a stone that is quite red. It is, however, much frequented by people suffering from rheumatism or other acute diseases, who are said to be cured by stretching themselves on a flat stone near the building!

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### KHIVA, called by the natives ORGUNJE.

THE Khanate of Khiva lies about 200 miles W. of Bokhara. It is a small but fertile territory, occupying the delta of the Amoo, and surrounded by deserts. The inhabited part is about 200 miles long by about one-half as much from east to west. It claims the dominion of the deserts which border the Caspian, and has of late years established its supremacy over the Turcoman borders south of the Amoo, and holds Merve, which lies on the high road between Khorassan and Bokhara. It is the ancient Kharism, and is mentioned by Arrian under the name of the country of the Chorasmi.

Khiva contains only two places of note, New Orgunje and Khiva, the former of which is the commercial capital, and the latter the residence of the Khan. NEW ORGUNJE stands on a canal derived from the Amoo, about six miles from the river, and has a population of about 12,000. KHIVA is a modern town, about half the size, situated also on a canal about 60 miles south-west of Orgunje, and is the greatest slave market in Turkestan.

THE COUNTRY OF THE KARA-KALPAKS, lying along the Sir, whose inhabitants are nomadic in summer and stationary in winter, is subject to Khiva, but contains no place of any importance. The people of Khiva make forays into Persia, seize Russian subjects on the Caspian, and supply Bokhara and Turkestan with slaves, and are said to possess about 2,000 Russian slaves themselves. But while they are thus robbing in every direction, they grant protection to caravans on payment of fixed duties. The Russians, in the winter of 1839-'40, attempted to march an army of 20,000 men into Khiva, but after suffering dreadfully from the effects of the cold, the armament was obliged to return to Orenburg; and instead of repeating the attempt, they have been content to enter into a treaty, one condition of which is, that the Khivans shall no more enslave Russian subjects.

## TURKMANIA.

TURKMANIA, or Turkestan Proper, is the country lying north of the Amoo, stretching from Balkh to the Caspian, and occupying the space between the sea and the Aral. On the south it is bounded by hills; and on the south-eastern shore of the Caspian, where Turkmania adjoins Persia, the country is mountainous, and watered by the rivers Gûrgan and Attruck, which fall into that sea. In all other places it is a flat and sandy desert, scantily supplied with water. The country contains no towns or villages; for the Turcomans are an erratic tribe, who wander from one well to another with their herds and flocks, taking their conical khirgahs, or huts, with them. The Turcomans boast that they rest under the shade neither of king nor tree. They acknowledge the patriarchal sway of their *aksakals* (whitebeards) or elders, and now and then fall under the power of some neighboring nations.

The life of a Turcoman is passed in the most reckless plunder of property and human beings; and a proverb among them boasts that a Turcoman on horseback knows neither father nor mother. They have fortunately no supreme ruler to guide and direct their united efforts, a circumstance which lessens their power, and the effects of their barbarity. They belong to the great family of the Tookee, or Tartar race, and differ from the Usbecks in being exclusively a nomadic people. They all claim a common lineage, though they are divided into different tribes. Their total number is reckoned at about 140,000 families. They have neither science nor literature; they are even without mosques, though not altogether without religion; they are a warlike people, and their domestic habits fit them for battle. Their food is simple, consisting of milk, and the flesh of their flocks and herds. They bestow great care on their horses, and exhibit the most patient solicitude in their breeding and food, so that their best qualities are fully developed. The Turcoman horse, however, is a large and bony animal, more remarkable for strength and power than for symmetry and beauty.

In the midst of Turkmania, between Bokhara and Persia, lies the once fertile LAND OF MERVE, the capital of which is said to have been built by Alexander. It long continued a dependency of the Persian Empire, and rose to be a great and opulent country. Such was its condition when it was conquered in 1787 by Shah Mûrad, of Bokhara, who destroyed its castle and canals, and forcibly marched the greater part of the people to Bokhara, where they still form a separate community. At a later period the remnant of the population was driven into Persia; and this beautiful district, which once presented so striking a contrast to the rest of the country, now partakes of the general sterility, while the Turkomans have usurped the place of its once fixed population. The fields on the verge of of the Mûrghab alone are cultivated, and here the Turkomans still rear the finest wheat, juwaree, and excellent melons.

## ASIATIC RUSSIA.

ASIATIC RUSSIA is a vast tract of country extending from the eastern borders of European Russia to the Pacific Ocean, a distance of nearly 4,000 miles; and from the Arctic Ocean to the borders of the Chinese Empire, Turkestan, Persia, and Ottoman Asia, a breadth of about 2,000. In describing this country it may be naturally considered under the two heads of the "Caucasian Provinces" and "Siberia."

## I.—THE CAUCASIAN PROVINCES.

Though the Caucasus has been assumed by modern geographers as the boundary between Europe and Asia, yet since the countries on both sides of the range form one physical region, and are included in one political government, we have found it necessary in this particular, to pass the limits of Asia and intrude on those of Europe. This country has a very irregular outline, and forms a sort of isthmus between the Black Sea and the Caspian. It is bounded on the north by the rivers Kouma, Manytsh, and Kougoi-Ieia; on the west by the Sea of Azov, the Strait of Yenikaleh, and the Black Sea; on the south by Turkish Armenia, the river Arras, and Persia, and on the east by the Caspian Sea. The area is estimated at about 200,000 square miles, and the population, including the mountain tribes, at 3,400,000.

The principal feature of the country is the celebrated mountain chain of Caucasus, which extends across it from near Anapa, on the Black Sea, to the Peninsula of Abcheron, on the Caspian, a distance of nearly 700 miles, with a breadth varying from 60 to 120 miles. The highest part of the chain lies to the east of Mount Elbûrz, 43° E. longitude, and contains numerous summits which rise above the snow line, but on the peninsula of Abcheron the chain sinks down to the appearance of moderate hills. Westward from Elbûrz the chain extends to the north-west, parallel to the shores of the Black Sea, at a distance of 20 or 30 miles, presenting in its eastern portion a series of granitic and porphyritic summits, flanked by shapeless masses of black schist, over which rises a wall of jurassic limestone to the height of 7,000 or 8,000 feet, (French,) cleft by deep ravines, through which the collected waters flow. Advancing from Colchis it is still separated from the sea by a uniform plain 7 or 8 leagues wide, which runs along its base for a space of 30 leagues, becoming gradually narrower, as far as the height of Gagra, where the jurassic wall approaches the sea with its full elevation, leaving only a pass almost as narrow as the Grecian Thermopylæ, which is a sandy flat, in some parts only 50 feet wide. Farther west the summits decline in elevation, and change their geological character; the black schists and the jurassic limestone are gradually concealed beneath the waves of the Black Sea, or under vast beds of a chalk formation, which here terminates the Caucasus. There are no longer peaks white with snow, but in their stead low, round, wooded hills are found ranging along a deep sea-coast, cut into a multitude of narrow lateral valleys, which are watered by unnavigable streams. The sea itself is bordered by a long series of white or grey shelving rocks, which are lashed by the waves.

Towards the banks of the Kouban the mountain valleys open into a plain, a considerable part of which is covered with forests, while the acclivities

and river banks are embellished with cypresses, the growth of centuries, palm trees, plantains, maples, elms, firs, and poplars. The northern bank of the Kouban presents a very different scene, and contains a tract as wild, desolate, and woodless, as the mind can conceive. The soil of the mountain valleys is rich and well watered, and wants only industry to render it highly productive. At present, however, it is overgrown with wild herbs, and is used only for pasturage. The same description, indeed, will apply, with little variation, to the country farther east, along the whole range of the mountains. To the north of the Kouban and the Terek extends a wide plain, containing scarcely any elevation deserving the name of hill; and the watershed of the country, between the two seas, rises probably no higher in its northern part than 120 feet above the level of the Black Sea. The western part of this plain is intersected by ravines: it contains not a single tree, but is covered with excellent grass, intermixed with beautiful flowers. The eastern portion, from the Terek to the Volga, is a saline, sandy, and barren steppe, occupied by a few wandering Tartars. Along the Caspian, southward, lies the "Daghestan" or hill country, which consists of a succession of hills and valleys, formed by the offsets of the Caucasus. Its south-western borders is the main range itself; but the northern part of its western border consists of a long offset which divides the river Koisou, which flows north from the smaller streams that flow directly east to the Caspian.

The southern slopes of the Central and Eastern Caucasus subside into two great valleys or river basins: the one extending 330 miles north-west from the Caspian, with a mean breadth of 75 miles, is drained by the Kûr and its numerous affluents; and the other extending only about 120 miles from the watershed westward to the Black Sea, is drained by the Rioni and its affluents. The mountains of Karalini, which form the watershed between these two great valleys, are of comparatively small elevation, and rise only to 6,000 feet; but as the range extends westward along the southern side of the basin of the Rioni, towards the mouth of the Choruk, under the name of the mountains of Akhaltsike, the summits reach in some places to 10,000 feet. The southern side of the basin of the Kûr is formed by a high mountainous country, which contains in its bosom the great Lake of Gûkcha, or Sivan; and one of the summits, Ali-Ghuz, rises to the height of 12,000 feet. To the north of these mountains we find the long narrow valley of the Arras, which forms throughout the greater part of its course the boundary between the Russian and Persian territories.

This region, except the portion to the north of the Kouban, which is a portion of the government of Taurida, forms one general government of the Russian Empire, the governor-general of which has his residence at Teflis, the capital of Georgia. It includes several ancient kingdoms, states, and provinces, whose names and people have acquired historical celebrity; and these it is necessary to consider as still the proper geographical divisions of the country, though the arrangements of the Russian government may be different. The ancient divisions are:—"Georgia;" "Shirwan;" the Russian portions of "Armenia and Azerbaijan;" "Imeritia, Mingrelia, and part of Gûriel;" "Abassia;" "Circassia;" "Daghestan and Leghistan;" and the old Russian province of "Caucasus," comprehending the country between the Kouma on the north, and the Terek on the south and west.

## I.—GEORGIA.

(*Gurgistan*, Pers.—*Grusia*, Russ.—*Gurtshi*, Turk.)

Georgia, though formerly of greater extent, may now be considered as comprising the north-western portion of the basin of the Kûr, and is about 240 miles in length by 120 in breadth. The Kûr flows nearly through the middle of it. The country presents an agreeable variety of mountains, forests and plains; enjoys a very mild climate, and is in general very healthy, and produces a great variety of vines, fruits, grains, &c. The people boast of their management of bees; their horses and beeves are equal in size and beauty to the best of Europe, and their long tailed sheep produce excellent wool.

The Georgians speak a language radically different from any known tongue, but they believe themselves to be descended from the same stock as the Armenians. They are generally handsome, well-made and active, and possess good natural abilities. The beauty of their women is not less celebrated than that of the Circassians, and many of them are or used to be exported to supply the harems of Persia and Turkey. Many of the Georgians live in huts; but in the more civilized portions of the country are found houses formed of slight wooden frames. In almost all the villages there are towers, built to serve as asylums for the women and children against the attacks of the Lesghis. About two-thirds of the people are proper Georgians, attached to the ritual of the Greek church. Armenians and Jews are also numerous.

Georgia was formerly a federal monarchy, subdivided among princes and nobles, the former of whom paid no tribute, but were obliged during war to follow the king with their vassals. Their law-suits were also decided by the king. The nobles paid certain taxes to both the king and the princes. Under these rules the people lived in a state of the most abject slavery, and were sold, given away, or pledged like domestic cattle. All that were capable of bearing arms were soldiers. The king's revenue consisted of a fifth part of the produce of the vineyards, fields and gardens, with duties upon all exports and imports, as well as the produce of the mines. Georgia being protected by mountains escaped the great Tartar invasion; but for the last three centuries it has been the scene of almost constant warfare; and though now under the regular government of Russia, it has experienced so little improvement that its public revenues are not sufficient to defray the necessary expenses.

TEFLIS, Tiflis or Tibilisi, the capital, stands near the centre of the country on the right bank of the Kûr. It was destroyed in 1796, by Aga Mahomed Khan, king of Persia; but has been gradually rebuilt. In the new town the streets are wide, with fine squares, barracks and hospitals. The houses of the governor-general and the court officials are well-built and large, but in the old town the houses are miserable. Among the other buildings are the cathedral, remarkable for its antiquity, extent and architecture, and the ancient citadel, which is built on a high rock and presents an imposing mass of ruins. Teflis is the residence of the governor-general of Caucasus, and of a Georgian and Armenian archbishop. It possesses a gymnasium, a seminary, several schools and a botanic garden. It has also four newspapers which are published in the languages of Russia, Georgia, Persia and Armenia, respectively. There are also celebrated warm baths. The inhabitants are somewhat industrious and carry on considerable trade,

but their number, including the large Russian garrison, does not amount to 30,000.

The other principal towns are—DOUCHETI, 27 miles north by west from Teflis; GORI, 45 miles north-west; GANJAH or Elizavetpol, 90 miles south-east; TELAVA, 35 miles north-east; SIGNAKH, 56 miles east by south; and AKHALTSIKE, 110 miles west. The last was formerly the capital of a Turkish pashalic, and contained 40,000 inhabitants, but it now contains only 13,000, mostly Armenian emigrants from Turkey. It contains several fine churches and ruins. WARZICH, in the volcanic region of the Trapovanie and the Kûr, formerly the favorite residence of the Armenian queen Thamar, is a most extraordinary spot. It is a complete city, hewn out of volcanic stone, and contains, among other works, three large churches, entirely cut out of the rock, subterraneous passages, innumerable chambers, some of them finely sculptured, and the queen's summer and winter palaces. The whole country around is covered with lava and volcanic products of various kinds.

## 2.—SHIRVAN, SHIRWAR OR GUIRVAN.

Shirvan was formerly a province of Persia. It comprises the lower part of the basin of the Kûr, between that river and the mountains. Its climate and natural productions are much the same as in Georgia. It consists chiefly of a well watered plain, which produces cotton, rice, wines and fruits of various kinds; but along the shore of the Caspian there is a flat tract almost a desert. The inhabitants are chiefly Mahomedan Persians.

BAKU, the capital, is situated at the south-west corner of the peninsula of Abcheron, where the sea is land-locked by two islands, which render the roadstead a safe anchorage. The town is walled and built on a declivity, the top of which is occupied by the old palace of the kings of Persia. Its streets are narrow and winding, and the population amounts to 3,500 or 4,000. The exports consist of naptha, saffron, cotton, silk, opium, rice and salt. The district of the town contains 35 villages and 19,000 inhabitants, of whom 1,000 are Turkomans.

The peninsula of Abcheron, though hilly, contains no summits exceeding 1,000 feet. The soil is rocky and barren, and its only water, obtained from wells, is brackish. It is a most singular region; not a tree is to be seen, and the soil is saturated with naptha, from which gas is profusely exhaled. It not only streams spontaneously through the surface, but rises wherever a hole is bored. It is of two kinds, black and white, and its principal sources are about six miles from Bakû. The black oil shines with a reddish tint in the rays of the sun, and is used for burning and for coating roofs. Not far from the same spot a stream of white oil gushes from the foot of a hill; it readily ignites and burns on the surface of the water; and in calm weather people amuse themselves with pouring it into the sea, where they set fire to it and it floats away, giving the waters the appearance of a sea of fire. The poor people obtain a cheap light and fire for cooking by driving a clay pipe or reed into the ground, and burning the gas which rises through it. The Persian ghebers likewise send the gas in bottles to their friends at a distance. Not far from Bakû is a boiling lake which is in constant motion, and emits a flame without heat. Occasionally the whole region seems to be on fire; and in ancient times this burning field was one of the most celebrated "ateshyahs" or shrines of grace among the ghebers or fire-worshippers of Persia—a spot to which thousands of pilgrims resorted to purify themselves from sin. The peninsula is likewise celebrated for numerous volcanoes, which discharge immense quantities of mud.



To the south of Shirvan, and divided from it by the Kûr, the Russian territory includes a portion of the Persian province of Ghilan, called "Talish;" but there are no towns or other places of the least importance within its limits.

### 3.—ARMENIA AND AZERBIJAN.

The Russian portions of Armenia and Azerbaijan lie between Georgia and the river Arras, being 200 miles in length and 130 in breadth. The country consists of a mass of mountains, crowding on each other and filling up the whole space with volcanic amphitheatres. One of the largest of these amphitheatres is occupied by the great fresh water lake Gûkcha, (properly "Gokcheh-derya," the blue lake,) called also Sivan, the surface of which is 5,300 feet above the level of the sea. In the north-western portion of the lake is an island called Sivan, with a monastery, 1,200 yards from the shore. The lake is unfathomable, and has the dark blue appearance of deep water. A branch of the river Zengue, which passes Erivan, carries the surplus waters of the lake to the Arras. The whole country in the neighborhood is volcanic. The soil of the valley of the Arras is extremely fertile, and the mountains are covered with pasture. Directly south of Erivan a small portion of the Russian territory extends to the south-westward of the Arras, and in the south-west corner of this portion stands the famous mountain "Macis, or Agri-dagh, or Ararat." Its peak rises to the height of 17,265 feet; and, 60 miles north by west of Ararat, the mountain Ali-ghuz, capped with perpetual snow, forms the northern termination of the superb garland, as M. Dubois calls it, of extinct volcanoes, which encloses the basin of Ararat or Central Armenia, over the whole circumference of which nothing is to be seen but black and grey lava currents, with pumice or obsidian, along with scorice or basalt, intermixed with porphyries and melaphyres. In July, 1840, Ararat and the neighboring country were shattered by a tremendous earthquake.

ERIVAN, the capital, is situated in a very rugged valley, on the east bank of the Zengue. It is a small city without walls, but has good houses, and contains about 1,800 Moslem and 700 Armenian families. The citadel, at a distance of about a quarter of a mile to the south, is almost a distinct town. The neighborhood is well cultivated and very productive, but the climate is said to be unhealthy. The population and trade of the place has decreased since the Russian conquest. About twelve miles west of the city is the convent of ETCHMIADZIN, the ecclesiastical capital of the Armenians, and the residence of the Catholicos, or spiritual primate. It is surrounded by a high wall: within it is a city in miniature, containing an ancient church, rebuilt in A. D. 618, and other buildings. NAKHCHEVAN, eighty miles east of Erivan, claims the honor of being the oldest city of the world; and tradition affirms that Noah fixed his residence here after descending from Ararat. This country contains numerous remains of antiquity, and the sites of a number of ancient capitals—as Julfa, Artaxata, Valarsapat, &c., the histories of which are matters of interest only to the scholar and antiquarian. The Protestant missionaries in this country have communicated to the world a vast fund of valuable information respecting localities; but our space is too brief to follow their details, and we must refer the reader to their publications in the various missionary periodicals which are accessible to all, at a cheap rate.

## 4.—IMERITIA, MINGRELIA, &amp;c.,

Occupy the whole basin of the Rioni, enclosed on three sides by mountains, and open only towards the Black Sea. The soil is extremely fertile, but little cultivated, and the country is covered throughout with thick forests. The lower part of the country, next to the sea, is a dead, unvaried flat, full of swamps and marshes, producing a constant miasma, the fertile source of pestilential fevers. The people are of the Georgian race, and amount only to 150,000. Imeritia is directly under the Russian government, but Mingrelia and Gûriel still have their respective princes, who acknowledge the Tzar's supremacy; but even their country is filled with Cossack police stations, and the condition of the people has been greatly improved. Still, with the exception of the merchants, the people are divided into only two classes—nobility and slaves; but the noble can no longer deprive his servant of life, nor sell him to a foreign master, as formerly. Ignorance and vice are very prevalent, and even few of the nobles can understand their own language.

K'HOUTHAISSI, the capital, stands on the Rioni, near the centre of the province. It is a small town of 1,500 inhabitants, one half of whom are Jews. The split and naked rocks which rise above the town are covered with ruins of every description—temples, churches, bridges, aqueducts, towers, &c., overgrown with ivy, brambles, and pomegranate bushes, being all the remains of the ancient city of Kuto, or Cutasium, the birth-place of Medea, so celebrated in classical mythology for her share in the success of the Argonautic expedition. POTI and REDOUT-KALEH are fortified places on the coast. The roads are unsafe, and there is no harbor; the trade which once centered at Redout-Kaleh is now transferred to Trebizond.

## 5.—ABASSIA, OR ABKHAZ.

Abassia lies along the north-east coast of the Black Sea, between the shore and the summit of Caucasus, being about 260 miles long, and less than 30 miles broad. The country is fertile, though very mountainous, supporting numerous herds of cattle. It is possessed by wild independent tribes, who have set the Russian power at defiance. The Abassians were formerly well known as pirates on the Black Sea, and many of them used to prosecute their fortunes in Egypt, where they rose by their bravery to eminent military rank. Their women are beautiful, and much sought after in Turkey, where they generally pass for Circassians.

The chief towns and forts are—ANAPA, on the Strait of Yenekaleh, which was formerly the chief emporium of the Turkish trade with the Circassian tribes, and from it the Georgian and Circassian slave-girls were supplied; SOUJOUK-KALEH, on a splendid bay, 25 miles south of Anapa; GHELENJIK, with one of the best harbors on the Black Sea, 16 miles further south; VADRAN, 50 miles south-east of Ghelenjik; and SOUKGOM-KALEH, 100 miles south-east of Vadrán, a miserable place, more fatal than any other to the Russian garrisons. All these places are fortified and occupied by Russian soldiers.

## 6.—CIRCASSIA.

Circassia extends along the north side of Caucasus, from the Sea of Azov to the Upper Terek; but by the gradual progress of Russian encroachment,

the independent Circassians are now restricted to the comparatively small region between the Kouban and the mountain tops. It comprises the northern declivities of the Caucasus, and sinks into a flat towards the banks of the river.

The Circassians call themselves "*Adechès*," a name denoting a mountain ravine on the sea; but their neighbors call them "*Tcherkesses*," a name which well expresses the ferocity of their disposition, being derived from *tsherk*, to cut off, and *kes*, the head; and from this word is derived the name Circassians. They are divided into tribes. These tribes bear the names of certain rivers or districts, or of individual founders, and number altogether, it is said, 272,400 males. The only class of society is the military; every head of a family being obliged to protect, as well as cultivate, his own property. Among some of the tribes, however, there is a sort of nobility, but destitute of privilege or influence. Some have slaves, who are not natives, but captive and purchased strangers.

In former times the Circassians were governed by despotic princes; but since 1769 the government has been vested in a sort of senate or council of elders. Of these assemblies there is one in every sub-division of a tribe, but their deliberations must be confirmed by the general assembly of the people, which often over-rules the decisions of the councils. This state of things gives rise to continual bickerings, animosities, and deadly hatred among the tribes. In religion the Circassians are Mahomedans, but in moral character they are a set of lawless plunderers, who respect only those of their own tribe and lineage; and have long been a scourge to the inhabitants of the neighboring provinces. In external appearance, however, the Circassians are a remarkably fine race, and their women are reputed to be the most beautiful in the Caucasus.

The Circassian language differs essentially from those of the other Caucasian tribes. It is never written, and when a Circassian has occasion to send a letter, he applies to his "*mollah*," who writes for him in the Turkish tongue. They are extremely ignorant, and have no taste for the arts or manufactures. Their houses are mere huts, and 40 or 50 of such huts ranged on a circle constitutes a village, in the centre of which they protect their cattle during night. Their horses roam freely in the fields, and are never stabled. A state of primitive simplicity characterizes their agriculture; but the great fertility of the soil makes up for their want of skill and industry. The management of bees forms an important part of their rural economy.

The original country of the Circassians is also called "*Kabardah*," which is divided into two portions, the Great and the Little; the former comprising the basin of the Kouban, and the other the upper and middle parts of the Terek. A small part of the first only is occupied by the Circassians at the present time.

#### 7.—DAGHESTAN AND LESGHISTAN,

Comprise the mountainous country between the Caspian and the summits of the Eastern Caucasus, as far west as the Koisou, and extend into Georgia as far as the Alazan, an affluent of the Kûr. Along the coast, Daghestan extends from Terek to Abcheron, 260 miles, with a breadth of about 100 miles; the north-eastern part of Lesghistan is included in this measurement, but its southern portion extends beyond it, down the southern slopes of the mountain. As its name implies, Daghestan is a region of mountains; but the soil is extremely fertile, and well watered. The climate is mild.

The inhabitants of the lowlands are a mongrel race of Persian, Arabian, Syrian, Turkish, and Tartar origin, mixed with the original Caucasians. The mountains are inhabited by the Lesghis, the most predatory and ferocious of all the Caucasian nations. The majority of them are Mahomedans, but a few vestiges of Christianity may also be traced among them. They had long been the terror of surrounding nations; but, in 1742, they were driven by the arms of Nadir Shah to seek protection from Russia, and swear allegiance to the Tzar. They now pay a small tribute of silk or money; and the influence of Russia is effectively felt in the election of their rulers, and the power of that nation is rapidly subduing the country.

The Lesghis are divided into numerous tribes, whom the nature of their country keeps so isolated that no such thing as a general confederacy or national union can be maintained among them. Their language has no analogy with any known tongue except that of the Samoides, to which it has a distant resemblance. It is divided into numerous dialects, which have been reduced to eight classes, and the people using them comprise so many small states. The first of these is the Avar, which comprises the Avars, and 14 other tribes resembling them, who all dwell in the north-western parts of Daghestan. The Avars are believed to be the remains of the Avars or Huns, who took refuge in this part of Caucasus. The only other tribes worthy of notice are—the Akushas, and the Kubashas, and the Kasi-Coumyks. The Akushas dwell on the Koisou, and form a republic, composed of about 30 villages. The Kubashas live also near the Koisou in a large town of the same name, and eight dependent villages. They are known throughout the East as the Zer-kherans, or makers of coats-of-mail; they manufacture splendid arms, and fine cloth or shawls, which they exchange for cattle and produce. They are a very peaceful tribe, and neither make war nor levy taxes; but have protected their territories by forts and fastnesses from their more rapacious neighbors. They are governed by a council of twelve elders, elected by the people. The Kasi-Coumyks live on a branch of the same river, and are governed by a khan, whose authority extends over 100 villages. He resides at Chahar, and can raise on an emergency 6,000 men. They are zealous Mahomedans, and fiercely opposed to the Russians. Besides the tribes enumerated as above, there are several other Lesghis tribes, whose dialects and pursuits have not been ascertained.

DERBENT, an ancient but decayed city on the Caspian, formed for many centuries the key of the Persian Empire in this quarter. It still contains about 4,000 families. In the neighborhood is a tomb, said to be that of forty Arab heroes who were killed in battle against the Infidels, when Derbent was taken by the Khalifs. The Mahomedan Lesghis still make pilgrimages to it. KOUBA, 50 miles south-west of Derbent, is a considerable town, and BEREIKLEI, 20 miles north-west, is the residence of the khan of the Kaitaks, who bears the title of "Ouzmei," and exercises a sort of sovereignty over the Akushas and Kubashas. There are some few other towns in the country, but none of the least importance to the general reader.

#### 8.—ANCIENT RUSSIAN CAUCASUS.

The province of Caucasus, the nucleus of the Russian possessions in this quarter, includes all the country north of the Terek and the Kouban, lying between the Caspian and eastern border of the Government of Taurida. It is almost entirely a sandy steppe, inhabited by hordes of wild and but half subdued tribes, over which the Tzar has as yet but a precarious sway.

STAVROPOL, the new capital, is a neat fortified town near the Kouban. GEORGHIEVSK, the old capital, and still the residence of the military governor-general of Caucasus, lies on the west bank of the Pod-Kouma, 90 miles to the south-east. KONSTANTINOGORSK, 20 miles south-west of Georghievsk, is celebrated for its sulphur baths, and at Kislavodsky there is acid water. KARASS, a neat town between the two last named places, at the foot of Bech-tau, (five mountains 4,320 feet high,) is remarkable for a colony of Germans and Scotch. MOZDOK is a commercial town, and one of the principal military stations on the line of the Terek. KISBAR is also an important fortress and large town, on a branch of the Terek, near its mouth; and VLADIKAVKAS, on the right bank of the Terek, is a small fortress and trading station.

The Russians first got possession of this country in the time of Peter the Great, who even extended his dominion along the Caspian Sea into Ghilan, but in the reign of Anne the military establishments were withdrawn to Kislar, and a line of forts carried along the Terek for the defence of the frontier. Mozdok was built in 1763, and from that point the line was extended gradually westward to the Sea of Azov, along the northern bank of the Kouban. The wars in which the Russians have been engaged with Turkey and Persia, having led them again to the south of the Caucasus, they have been anxious to establish their authority over the intervening mountain tribes, who, if not reduced to subjection, are likely to prove most troublesome and dangerous neighbors. In the course of time they will probably succeed in effecting their subjugation, but as yet their progress has been very slow; and as war, instead of moral suasion, seems to be the policy of the Russians, their aim must be rather the extirpation than the civilization of the invaded party.

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## II.—THE SIBERIAN PROVINCES.

Siberia is the general name of the vast region owned by Russia, occupying all the northern parts of Asia between the Altai range and the Arctic Ocean. Its extreme length is 4,000 miles, and its greatest breadth about 1,870 miles, covering an area of 4,000,000 square miles, and containing a population, according to late returns, of 3,611,300.

The original Siberia was a small khanate, founded by the Tartars in 1242, on the banks of the Irtysh and the Obi, which took the name of "Siber," from its capital. This khanate was invaded by the Russians in the 16th century, and after considerable resistance was added to the dominions of the Grand Duke. As the Russian discoveries and conquests extended eastward, the name was vaguely applied to the newly acquired country, till at length it reached the farther limits of Asia, on the Arctic and Pacific Oceans; and it was even for a time extended to the kingdoms of Astrakan and Kazan, on the west of the Ourals. The name is now definitely restricted to the country east of those mountains.

Siberia comprises the largest portion of that vast plain which occupies the whole northern zone of the eastern hemisphere. Sloping upwards from the Arctic Sea to the Ourals and the Altai mountains, the ascent is so gradual as to be scarcely perceptible; and so low is it, that at Tobolsk, 550 miles from the ocean, the elevation is less than 2,000 feet. The plain

seems to consist almost entirely of steppes and marshes, intersected by large sluggish rivers, which roll down a large mass of water to the Arctic Ocean. The steppes are extensive plains, somewhat different from each other in nature and aspect. In some places they are like the American prairies, covered with abundance of tall coarse grass; in others the soil is saline, the salt appearing in the form of an efflorescence mixed with the earth, or in ponds and lakes of salt water, but in general they consist of very loose soil, and contain many lakes, because the waters finding no declivity remain stagnant. In some places the plain is a bog, as level as the sea. The climate is, in every sense of the word, excessive. Exposed without shelter throughout its whole length to the winds which blow from the polar ice, and excluded by the high mountains of Central Asia from the more genial breezes which would otherwise reach it from the equatorial regions, the cold in the northern part is keener and more constant than that of Lapland, and the same intensity is sometimes experienced among the southern mountains. The winter lasts for nine, or even ten months. The summer heats are short, but sudden and powerful; and the growth of vegetables is almost perceptible. But, though the climate is so severe and unkindly, it is not injurious to health. Storms are frequent in the southern regions, but near the ocean thunder is seldom heard. In the low countries the *Aurora Borealis* is a constant phenomenon, and in no country does it exhibit a greater magnificence. The climate of Siberia on the whole is favorable to man, and the natives, as well as strangers, complain of nothing but the excessive cold.

In so rigorous a climate, only the most hardy plants can thrive: the oak, the hazel, the alder, the plane, and the wild-apple cannot withstand the rigors of a Siberian winter. These disappear in the neighborhood of the *Ourals*, and on the banks of the *Tobol*. The lime and the ash cease at the *Irtish*; and the common gooseberry, which grows in *Greenland*, does not succeed further north than  $66^{\circ}$ . Potatoes diminish in size, till at the latitude of  $60^{\circ}$  they are no larger than peas; and here cabbages cease to expand. But we must not conclude from these facts that the great rivers of Siberia pass through barren wastes, for they are skirted with thick forests, and many species of pine attain to a vast height and magnificent proportions. Many fruit-trees are also found, and the *Siberian Crab*, so famous in Europe, is indigenous to this country. Vegetation, however, diminishes in development, proceeding northward and eastward. During their short summer, these wild regions are adorned with a considerable number of beautiful flowers, each zone possessing some peculiar to itself. Beyond the 60th parallel and 112th meridian, the cerealia do not succeed, but in the southwest few countries are better suited either in soil or climate for extensive agricultural operations. In the north the crops are killed by the cold—in the east the fogs prevent them from ripening, and the mountains on the southern frontier are too cold and too dry; so that three-fifths of Siberia are scarcely susceptible of any sort of cultivation.

Siberia scarcely exhibits a single genus of bird or quadruped, which is not also common to Europe. Wild rein-deer roam in herds near the shores of the ocean, and when domesticated, form the wealth of the wandering tribes. The *Siberian dog*, resembling the wolf, is in some measure the companion of the rein-deer. He serves with it as an animal of draught, but is wild and difficult to guide. The *Tartars* of Western Siberia have carried along with them the horse; but the greater part of the *Siberian horses*

are white. The sheep are of the broad-tailed kind, and the black cattle, which have been transported from Russia, though diminished in size, are improved in strength. In general the animals of Central Asia extend into Siberia; the camel is common among all the tribes. Siberia is the most extensive hunting-ground in the world; and animals of the chase are as plentiful as in North America and South Africa. Sables, ermines, marmots, martens, and squirrels, are the principal animals hunted for their skins. The rock or ice fox inhabits the icy zone, and the elk is diffused over the country. The wild horse is found on the steppes, and the wild ass, the jighetai, (a sort of mule,) the stag, the roe-buck, the antelope, the argali, some wild boars, and the musk animal, inhabit the various regions of this vast country. There are also various small animals worthy of notice—as the hare, the mole, weazel, and various species of the rat and mouse kind. Among the wild beasts the white bear is the most formidable; the brown bear is also common; and the ounce, panther, lynx, glutton, and tiger, are natives of the country. Man is annoyed with a great variety of insects; in summer the air is darkened with mosquitoes, and even reindeer are forced to take refuge from these tormentors. The houses are infested with bugs. Game and wild fowl cover the lakes and marshes, and the seal and the morse abound on the coasts. The herring is prolific, and shoals of sturgeon and salmon crowd the rivers. On the eastern coast the fisheries are very rich and remarkable; and the waters abound with whales, sea-bears, sea-wolves, manatis, and sea-otters. Besides these living animals, remains of elephants, the rhinoceros, and other animals of the torrid zone, have been found along the banks of the great rivers, even to the very shores of the ocean. The Liakhof Islands are composed entirely of sand, and the bones of elephants and other mammoth animals, which are quite entire, even sometimes with the flesh and skin in good preservation. Naturalists are quite at a loss to account for the occurrence of these remains in such high latitudes.

But Siberia is most noted for its mineral wealth. Gold, silver, platina, copper, and iron, are produced in enormous quantities. Red lead is found in the mines of Beresov. Chrysolites, opals, beryls, lazulites, feldspar jasper, talc, black porphyry, and other minerals, occur in various places, and there can be no doubt that much mineral treasure remains yet to be discovered. The grand mining districts are in the neighborhood of the Ourals, on both sides of the range. It is, however, on the Asiatic side of the mountains, that the auriferous sands are found, which contain pieces of gold, platina, and chromate of iron mixed with platina. The principal gold mines are those of Beresov. They were first worked in 1754. In other parts mining operations are carried on largely; and the value of the mines is much enhanced by the presence of thick forests in their neighborhood. In quantity, as well as in financial importance, iron, undoubtedly, far surpasses the other metallic products of the country. There is annually produced about 132,000 tons of this metal. The Ouralian copper mines yield about 3,500 tons annually; and the gross value of the platina and gold found in the Ourals nearly equals that of the iron, and has been estimated at the yearly amount of \$18,000,000. Silver is rarely found in a native state, but is often mixed with gold, and sometimes with lead. Asbestos is also produced in the Ourals, and in other places; and on the eastern coasts there is found a soft, and almost fluid clay, called lithomarge or rock marrow, which the natives eat by itself or with milk, without in-conve-

nience. Throughout Siberia there is also found on the aluminous schistus an efflorescence called "rock-butter," which is used by the people as a remedy in diarrhœa and the venereal disease. Diamonds have lately been found, but in small quantities. Asiatic Russia, indeed, promises to become the most productive of metaliferous countries; and the government, by fostering these rich resources, may eventually become one of the most powerful and wealthy nations of the world, and the great arbiter of both Europe and Asia.

The Russians are of course the dominant people; but they, with the Cossacks, and other colonists from Europe, inhabit chiefly the towns and military stations. Some of them are descended from the conquerors, or the soldiers employed in keeping the country in subjection; others are criminals, sent thither for punishment, with their descendants. To these must be added adventurers, peasant deserters, and ruined merchants, who seek here the means of repairing their fortunes. Siberia, indeed, is to Russia what California is to the United States: a sanctuary for those whose condition is irksome at home, or whose residence in the haunts of civilization is dangerous to their personal liberty. The higher officers of the government are a very fleeting class in the community; all of them, whether civil or military, who volunteer to serve in Siberia, are entitled to promotion, by three years' service beyond the Irtysh; and those who seek advancement through this channel seldom stay beyond the time required. The growing civilization, however, of Siberia, and the great advantages it holds out to settlers, have, of late years, induced many respectable persons to take up their permanent abode in the principal towns, and in the more fertile and agreeable districts of the country; and thus the country is constantly receiving fresh elements of civilization, and a gradual revolution is forced upon society at large.

But the Russians only form as yet a small moiety of the population. Numerous Tartar colonists occupy the southern part of the government of Tobolsk, and immense hordes of natives, under different names, inhabit the full extent of the country. Almost every nation of Asia has representatives in Siberia; and in its several towns are found Armenians, Chinese, Jews, &c., while the Tonggooses, Finns, Samoiedes, Yakûts, Tschuktschi, Koriaks, Bashkirs, &c., form the principal native tribes. These are divided into several families, the names, customs, and religion of which, partake of every shade and creed in the known world. Nothing, indeed, could be more heterogeneous than a Siberian community; and the commixture of civilization and barbarism which characterizes the people, forms a remarkable feature throughout the whole.

Besides the agricultural labors which are carried on in places suitable for the production of grain, with the hunting and fishing, and rearing of horses and cattle, that form the chief occupation of the native tribes, the industry of the Russian settlers is principally directed to the working of the mines and the manufacturing of iron and copper; utensils of these metals, leather, shagreen, carpets, arms, glass, salt, saltpetre, pitch, isinglass, and felts. The art of lackerings has been brought to great perfection. Many of the manufacturers have sent their serfs into Western Europe to study various branches of the arts, and these returning, have established schools in the towns for the benefit of their brethren. Among other branches of industry carried on, is the cutting and engraving of precious stones. Amethysts, topazes, tourmalines, with quartz, crystals of large



size, are cut and polished with great skill; and are then inelegantly, though ponderously, set in the gold of the country. The trade of the lapidary, indeed, is carried on to a great extent. Tagalisk is the chief town in which manufactures are pursued.

The trade of Siberia with foreign nations is very extensive and profitable. Tobolsk is the centre of the greatest amount of commerce. The produce of the mines, fisheries, and hunting expeditions, are here met with, and exchanged for European and Chinese goods and manufactured articles. A great trade is also carried on at the annual fair of Irbit, 100 miles north-east of Iekaterinburg, which is the best frequented and most important of all Siberia. The commerce eastward of Tobolsk is carried on through Kiakhta, Irkutsk, and several other intervening towns, the whole distance between Tobolsk and Kiakhta, with the exception of about 60 miles, being navigable by the branches of the Angara, Ienisei, and the Obi; and though the route is exceedingly circuitous and irksome, amounting to no less than 8,000 miles, the profits of the trade carried on with the Siberian tribes on the banks of the streams, are considered a sufficient compensation for the time and trouble spent on the journey. From the south, the merchants of Turkestan bring silk and cotton stuffs, precious stones, and other articles. Formerly caravans used to arrive annually at Omsk, Orenburg, and other frontier towns of Western Siberia. But at present the return merchandise is carried direct to Nishnei-Novgorod, in European Russia. Still, however, small caravans occasionally travel southward from the Siberian frontier, taking with them skins, linen, and bar iron. The merchants, who are chiefly Tartars, assemble at Semiyarsk, on the Irtysh, and usually start in May, while the pools and the streams in the deserts are not yet dried up. The place to which they direct their journey is Tashkend in Turkestan, at a distance of two months' travelling from Semiyarsk; the first 200 miles being over a wild and hilly country, across the Karakoralui Mountains, which are thickly covered with forests; after leaving which, they pass through a woodless country, till they reach Tashkend. To the north, again, Obdorsk, 50 miles from the mouth of the Obi, is a point of the greatest importance to the Russian fur trader, and is the centre of the commerce carried on with all the tribes who possess the country, from Archangel to the Ienisei. The traders begin to assemble in December, but the active traffic, or the fair, does not take place till February, when the "yasak," or tribute of skins, is paid by the Ostiaks of Beresov. Besides many other useful articles, great quantities of meal and baked bread are sent northward by private traders, from Tomsk and Tobolsk, besides what is dispatched on account of government, all of which serves as money in the traffic with the Ostiaks and Samoiedes, who are very fond of such luxuries. Petropaulovski, in Kamtschatka, is the principal port on the Pacific, but its trade is monopolized by the Russian American Company, who have also factories or counting-houses at Moscow, Irkutsk, Yakutsk, Okhotsk, Kazan, Tomsk, and other places. Peltry forms the principal article of trade.

Siberia is divided, after the manner of European Russia, into several great governments, over each of which a governor-general presides as the chief executive officer. These divisions with their area and approximate population, and the chief towns of each, are exhibited in the following table:

<i>Governments.</i>	<i>Area in sq. Geog. miles.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Capitals.</i>
TOBOLSK .....	88,818..	800,000 ....	Tobolsk.....18,000
TOMSK .....		1,300,000 ....	Tomsk.....12,000
IRKUTSK .....		700,000 ....	Irkutsk.....16,000
LENISEISK .....	162,000..	493,000 ....	Krasnoyarsk .....
YAKUTSK .....		300,000 ....	Yakutsk.....6,000
OKHOTSK .....		10,000 ....	Okhotsk.....3,000
KAMTSCHATKA .....		8,000 ....	Petropoulovski .. 2,000
Total.....	250,818	3,611,000	

TOBOLSK, the former capital of all Siberia, is situated on the right bank of the Irtysh, near its confluence with the Tobol. It is divided into the Lower and Upper town, the former of which stands on the banks of the river, while the latter occupies the top of a steep ridge which rises considerably above the plain. The lower town is only 128 feet and the upper only 357 feet above the level of the Arctic Ocean. Except the governor's house and two churches the town is built wholly of wood. Many institutions, similar to those of St. Petersburg, have been introduced, and literature, science and the polite amusements have also made considerable progress among the inhabitants. The town is well supplied with foreign goods, and the markets are in every respect abundantly supplied with the luxuries as well as the necessities of life. TUMEN, BERESOV, OBDORSK, &c., are also towns in this government; all are trading posts of great importance.

TOMSK, on the right bank of the Tim near its mouth, though possessed of many fine buildings and institutions of great value, is represented as a miserable unhealthy place. BARNOUL is the centre of the mineral region of Kolyvan, and contains about 14,000 inhabitants. OMSK, formerly the capital of a province of the same name, now suppressed, is a large town, and has about 12,000 inhabitants. The suburbs contains some neat buildings, but otherwise nothing remarkable.

IRKUTSK, on the left bank of the Anjara, is the chief town in Eastern Siberia. It is the handsomest in external appearance, and the most elegant as to society, in the country. The principal inhabitants are merchants and the civil and military officers of government. KIAKHTA is a neat and regularly built town on the right bank of a brook of its own name, an affluent of the Selinga, which forms the border of the Russian and Chinese empires. It is the only place on this frontier where the Chinese government allows its subjects to trade with Russia. SELINGINSK, NIJNEI-UDINSK, WERTSHINSK, and several other towns of importance, are also in the government of Irkutsk. Wertshinsk is the head-quarters of the great penal settlement of Siberia—all the worst criminals being sent to work in the mines of the district. The majority of them are kept at the "Bolshoy-zavod" or great fabric, 180 miles east of the city, situated in a deep hollow and surrounded by high and barren rocks, as bleak, dreary and inhospitable as can well be imagined.

KRASNOYARSK, the capital of the province of Ieniseisk, is situated on the left bank of the Ienesei, 300 miles north-west of Irkutsk. ATSHINSK, 50 miles west, is a thriving trading town.

YAKUTSK, on the left bank of the Lena, is an irregularly built town, but being the seat of the fur trade and of a great commerce with the natives, it contains a comparatively large population. Yakutsk has all the character

\*Omsk has been divided between Tobolsk and Tomsk. Part of the governments of Perm and Orenburg also extend into Siberia.

of the cold and gloomy north. The Russians live entirely by trade, and have abandoned all sorts of handicraft to the Yakûts, among whom there are now excellent carpenters, cabinet-makers, carvers in wood, and painters.

NISHNEI-KOLYMSK stands on the eastern side of an island in the Kolyma, about 150 miles from the mouth of the river. It is a large town for this part of the world, containing 50 houses, 400 inhabitants, most of whom are Cossacks, with a few pedlers, and three priests.

OKHOTSK is a small town with a harbor on the west side of the sea of Okhotsk, and maintains considerable trade with Kamtschatka and the Russian settlements in America. PETROPAULOVSKI, the capital of Kamtschatka, is a town of thatched log houses. Its harbor is a safe land-locked basin, on the eastern side of Awatska bay. The bay is 30 miles in circuit, with a general depth of water of 12 or 14 fathoms, on a level bottom of soft mud, and abounds with fish of the finest quality. Its entrance is four miles long and a mile and a half wide at its narrowest part, with a lighthouse on the south-east point, in latitude  $52^{\circ} 52' N.$ , and longitude  $158^{\circ} 47' E.$

## THE EMPIRE OF JAPAN.

THIS Empire consists of a group of large islands in the Pacific Ocean, separated from China by the Channel of Tartary and the Sea of Japan, and lying between the parallels of  $30^{\circ}$  and  $42^{\circ} N.$  latitude, and between the longitudes of  $128^{\circ}$  and  $143^{\circ} E.$  The principal islands are named—Nippon, Sikoke, Kiu-Siu, Awadsi, Sado, and Ieso; besides which, the Japanese have also colonized the southern portion of the island of Sagalien, and claim dominion over the southern half of the Kurile Islands. Nippon is upwards of 800 miles in length, but of irregular form, and of various breadths: the other islands are very considerably smaller. The whole superficial area of the empire is estimated at about 260,000 square miles.

The surface of the principal islands is very uneven, and interspersed with rocky hills. Nippon is traversed throughout its whole length by a regular chain of mountains, the peaks of which exceed 12,000 feet in height; but the elevation is generally so low as to admit of cultivation up to the water-sheds of its streams. Several of the summits are active volcanoes: earthquakes are frequent and destructive, and thermal and mineral springs occur in several places. The metallic wealth of the country is very great, and copper, tin, sulphur, lead, iron, gold and silver abundant. The streams have very short courses, and are rather torrents than rivers. The climate varies extremely from north to south. In Kiu-siu, and the southern part of Nippon, the thermometer ranges between  $29^{\circ}$  and  $104^{\circ} Fahr.$ — $80^{\circ}$  being the average of the middle of summer, and  $35^{\circ}$  in the coldest months of winter. Rain is very frequent, while hurricanes and storms often sweep destructively over the land. Few plants, except on the hills, are found in a natural state; and the face of the country, even up the sides of the mountains, is most diligently cultivated. In the southern districts rice is raised in large quantities, and forms the usual food of the inhabitants. Wheat is held in little estimation; but barley, buckwheat, beans, potatoes, melons, &c., are raised in abundance. Ginger and pepper are the principal spice-plants: cotton and tobacco are also grown; next to rice, however,

tea is the grand object of cultivation. The natural forests produce oaks, firs, and cypresses: there is also the gum-varnish tree, the camphor-laurel, and many others of great value. Among the wild animals may be enumerated bears, boars, foxes, dogs, monkeys, hares, &c. Buffaloes and beeves are not numerous, and are used only for draught. The horses are small, and used only by the nobility; while sheep and pigs are almost unknown, and what few there are have been introduced by the Dutch. Dogs are held sacred by the men, and cats are the constant companions and pets of the women. Birds are numerous, and of many species. Snakes are everywhere, and one variety, the "ourabami," is of enormous size: there are also tortoises and lizards, scorpions, centipedes, and white ants. The seas contain large quantities of fish, which afford a principal food to the inhabitants, and give employment to numerous villages of fishermen: oysters, also, of a peculiar and delicious kind, are extremely abundant. Whales and narwhales often visit the coasts, and are caught with the harpoon—the flesh is eaten, the balein serves for various purposes, and ambergris is extracted from the entrails.

The Japanese are a mixed race of Mongol and Malay origin. They are generally well-made, active, and nimble, with yellow complexions, small, deeply-set eyes, short and flat noses, broad heads, and thin, black hair. They are divided into eight classes: princes, nobles, priests, soldiers, civil officers, merchants, artizans, and laborers. All these positions and pursuits are hereditary—the son succeeds to the occupation of his father, and no amount of merit can elevate him above the class in which he was born. Woman, however, occupies a higher station than is allowed to her in any other oriental nation. She is the companion, and not the slave of the man, and presides on all occasions of social festivity. They are skilful and prudent as housekeepers, and remarkable for their fidelity. The samsie, or guitar, is even more invariably a part of female education than the piano in western countries. Prostitution, however, is carried on to a horrid extent; and, so little discredit is attached to the prostitutes, that they are received without remark into respectable society.

In literature the Japanese are said to excel. They study medicine and astronomy; history, poetry, and several of the natural sciences are cultivated, and there is a prevalent taste for drawing, engraving, and music. The Japanese language has no relation to the Chinese, nor indeed to any other known in Asia. It is polysyllabic, and has an alphabet of 47 letters, which are written in five different forms, one of which is used exclusively by the men, and another by the women. Some of the inhabitants are also acquainted with the Chinese. The established or state religion is that of Buddha; but it has many varieties, and much superstition prevails among its votaries. Monks, religious beggars, and singing-girls, go about the country and levy considerable sums. The sect of Suito, which professes the doctrines of Confucius, has also been imported from China; but its followers are very few. An older form of religion than either of these, however, has maintained itself from the most remote antiquity. It is called Sinto, or Sin-siu, (faith in the gods,) or Kami-no-mitsi, (way to the gods.) This ancient sect consider the founders of the Empire as the immediate descendants of the Supreme God, who came down from heaven into Japan, and have continued without interruption to exercise sovereign authority. They believe the spirit of their ruler to be immortal, and consider the Supreme Being too great to be addressed in prayer, except through the

mediation of the Mikado, the Son of Heaven, or the inferior spirits called Kami, to whom temples are specially erected. The priests of this sect are allowed to marry.

The amount of the population is entirely unknown, but has been variously estimated. Balbi, in the assumption that Japan is equally populous with China, rates it at 25,000,000; but as China rates double the number this geographer has assigned to it, the population of Japan should, on this principle, amount to fifty or sixty millions.

The government is a hereditary absolute monarchy. The sovereignty was formerly vested directly in an Emperor, called the Mikado, or Dairi-Lama; but in A. D. 1593, the Emperor's "Seogun," (called also *Kubo*,) or military commander, usurped the chief civil power, and the Mikado has ever since been a mere tool in the government, though he has been left the entire superintendence of religion and education. All public acts, however, must have his sanction, and to him alone belongs the power of conferring honorary distinctions. He lives at Míyako, secluded in a large palace, called the *Dairi*, or Imperial Court, and is treated with almost divine honors. His income, however, is so small that he may be said to live in splendid poverty. The Kubo keeps a guard and a governor over him, but at the same time acknowledges himself to be the Mikado's first subject, and sends an embassy every year, to acknowledge his inferiority, with presents. The Kubo holds his court at Iedo; exercises full authority over the lives and property of his fellow subjects, and directly administers the local government of the five great towns of Iedo, Míyako, Osaka, Sakai, and Nangasaki. The rest of the Empire is divided into provinces, and the smaller districts, which are governed by daimios and síomios, appointed by the Kubo, and who are abjectly dependent on him. They usually reside in the large towns, and occupy castles defended by strong gates and lofty towers; but even the least dependent daimios are obliged once a year to repair to Iedo, attended by numerous and splendid retinues, bearing valuable presents, which form a main portion of the Kubo's revenues; and some of them are obliged to leave their wives and families at Iedo, as hostages for their faithful conduct. Their own revenues are derived from their respective districts, with which, besides maintaining their state and dignity, they have to support an armed force, make and repair roads, and erect other public works.

The general executive government is confided to seven councillors; the supreme judicial council is composed of five daimios, who assist the Kubo in deciding on political offences, and a senate of fifteen daimios form the ordinary court of criminal and civil law. The laws are severe, and often sanguinary; and death by decapitation and crucifixion are ordinary punishments. Minor offences are punished by exile to the penal settlements of Fatsisio—banishment, imprisonment, torture, &c.; and it often happens that the courts visit with punishment, not only the delinquent, but his relatives and friends, or the stranger that has happened to witness the crime. The prisons are gloomy and frightful dungeons, and the police is extremely strict. The whole government, indeed, is conducted under a state of terrorism, and no part of it is free from restraint. From the Kubo to the lowest menial a mutual spy-system obtains, and even the Emperor himself is liable to inquisitorial strictures.

The public revenues are derived from taxes on land and houses: the land is assumed to be the property of the state; and taxes, as in all

Asiatic countries, are considered as a part of the rent. The army, in times of peace, is rated at 120,000 infantry, and 20,000 cavalry. The arms of the former are muskets, pikes, bows, sabres, and daggers; and of the latter, lances, sabres and pistols. The artillery is confined to a few brass cannon and light guns. Discipline and the science of fortification are little understood. There is no armed navy. Japan has, however, from nature formidable defences in reefs, which encircle the islands, and make her harbors accessible only by channels so tortuous and involved, that a fleet overtaken by a storm while in them, could scarcely escape destruction. Spared dangers of that sort, an invader would meet on the strand a people greatly superior in physical ability and intelligence to any that have succumbed to British power in India or in China. Blockades, however rigid, would prove harmless, for such is the fertility of the soil, and the skill and industry of the people, that Japan is perhaps the most independent power on earth. Neither the bread of the poor nor the luxuries of the rich come from abroad. Japan subsists *per se*. It is even doubtful whether a foreigner could do anything more agreeable to the islanders than to blockade them rigorously, since non-intercourse with the civilized world, unrelieved even by smuggling, seems the consummation of Japanese hope and policy.

The Japanese have many of the arts in a perfection not yet attained by their more civilized cotemporaries. In those of smelting and refining metals they excel—their copper, iron, and steel, being celebrated for their purity. Their manufactures of them show uncommon skill in the mechanic arts. The blades of their national weapon, the sabre, are quite equal to the best of those of Damascus; and the wares, to which the empire gives name, are not equalled elsewhere. The finer products of European art are imitated by them, and telescopes, thermometers, and clocks, are manufactured at Nangasaki. Mr. Meyler\* saw one of the latter, made there in 1827 as a present for the Emperor, which was five feet long and three high; it exhibited a varied landscape and a golden sun; on the striking of the hour a bird clapped its wings, a mouse issued from the cave and climbed a mountain, and a tortoise *hastened slowly* to point the hour upon the dial!

In agriculture they are superior, and the country is cultivated like a garden to the hill tops. The soil rewards the labor of the tiller, by yielding in equal perfection and abundance the vegetable products of the tropics and of Southern Europe. The radish attains the weight of forty pounds. They have also an extraordinary perfection in the art of producing miniature-specimens of trees and shrubs. Mr. Meyler saw offered for sale to the Dutch Governor, a box three inches long by one wide, in which were flourishing a fir-tree, a bamboo, and a plum-tree—the latter in blossom.

The coasting and inland trade of the empire is very extensive; the former is carried on in junks, in many respects similar to those of China, and the latter by fairs which are held periodically in the large cities. Native industry is protected and encouraged by a variety of regulations, but on the other hand there are no customs or excise duties, and communication is facilitated by numerous coasting vessels and by excellent roads. The shops and markets are always well provided, and the great fairs are attended by crowds of people from all quarters. Foreign commerce, however, so far from being encouraged, is rigorously opposed by the government,

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\* Sketches in Japan, 1840.

in consequence of the attempts made by the Jesuits to christianize the people. Nangasaki is the only port open to foreign trade, and the Dutch are the only Europeans allowed to engage in it, while the number of vessels, and the kinds and quantities of goods, are strictly defined; and the number of residents in the factory is restricted to eleven. The ships on arrival are minutely searched; and the crews confined on the small island of Desima, which is close to the harbor. All the business is transacted by the Japanese, who even unload and reload the vessels. The superintendent of the factory is likewise obliged to send valuable presents to the Kubo, and once in four years he is required to make an official visit to Iedo, with great pomp, and gifts of more than usual value. The imports comprise raw silk, woollen, cotton and linen cloths, sugar, dye-woods, seal-skins, pepper and other spices; mercury, tin, iron, cinnabar, glassware, &c., from the Dutch; and silk, tea, sugar, dried fish and whale oil from the Chinese. The exports consist chiefly of copper in bars, and to a small amount, of camphor, silk fabrics, lackered ware, porcelain, &c.

MIYAKO, (i. e. the capital,) or KIO, (the residence,) the metropolis of the empire, is a very large city, situated in a plain surrounded by hills, in the south-western part of Nippon, about 40 miles from the sea. It is regularly built, with straight streets crossing each other at right angles, but here, as everywhere else in the country, the houses are of wood and very inferior. Among the great number of public buildings the principal is the palace of the Mikado, an enclosure of vast extent, surrounded with walls and ditches, and overlooked by a fine square tower. Next to it are—the palace of the Kubo, a building of hewn stone, surrounded by a wet ditch and also overlooked by a tower; the temple of Fokozi, celebrated for a colossal image of “Daibouts” or the Great Buddha; and the temple of Kwanwon, also with a large image of that god, and numerous images of his subordinate deities. Miyako is the centre of Japanese trade and industry, and contains the mint where the money of the empire is coined. Most of the books are also printed in this city, where the “dairi” or imperial court forms a sort of imperial academy for the cultivation of literature, science and the fine arts. The city contains also a library of 150,000 volumes, and one of the six universities of the empire. Miyako contains about 500,000 inhabitants, among whom are reckoned 52,169 priests.

IEDO or YEDO, the official residence of the Kubo, and the seat of the civil and military government of the empire, is situated in a large plain, opening to the shore of a deep gulf on the south-eastern coast of Nippon, about 200 miles east north-east of Miyako. It is about 20 miles in circuit, and contains about 1,500,000 inhabitants, who carry on an extensive trade. The palace of the Seogun or Kubo is the principal building, and in its extent seems to form a separate town. It is surrounded with ramparts and wet ditches, which are crossed by draw-bridges. It contains the great imperial library, and it was here that the encyclopædia of Japan was published, a very valuable work in 80 volumes, with a great number of plates. Owing to the nature of its construction the city is very subject to fires; scarcely a day passes without several; and whole quarters of the city are sometimes burned down.

NARA, the ancient residence of the emperors, and consequently much venerated, is situated near Miyako, and is a very flourishing place, in consequence of its numerous temples, which attract devotees. OSAKA, on the Yodo, is a large city, the richest and most commercial in the empire, and

the greatest resort of all the votaries of pleasure. The Japanese say that its population could furnish an army of 80,000 men; if so it must be an extraordinary city. NANGASAKI, on the west coast of Kiu-sui, an open town with narrow winding streets, is the only place where foreigners are allowed to trade. Its commerce and manufactures render it flourishing and populous. It is surrounded with hills crowned with numerous temples, which give it a very picturesque appearance. MATSMAI, with 50,000 inhabitants, lies on a bay at the south-west point of the island of Ieso. Its harbor is constantly filled with merchant vessels, and it has a flourishing trade.

Among the remarkable places in Japan we must not omit to notice the island of Fatsisio, the most extraordinary place of exile in the world. It is a small island in the open sea 230 miles south by east of Iedo, and its coasts are so precipitous that there is only one landing place. The grandees, who have fallen under the Kubo's displeasure, are sent hither, where they are employed in different kinds of handiwork, and manufacture stuffs so precious for their beauty that his majesty reserves them for his own use.

The large island of Ieso, called also Mo-sin and In-su, to the northward of Nippon, and separated from it by the Strait of Sangar, though possessed and colonized by the Japanese, is also inhabited by an aboriginal people who call themselves Ainos, but are called by the Japanese, Mosins, (hairy bodies.) They are distinguished from the Japanese, says Malte Brun, (II. 509-14,) by a somewhat taller stature and more robust frame; they have large, thick, black beards, and black and somewhat frizzled hair. They live chiefly by hunting and fishing, and pay their tribute to the governor of Matsmai, in skins and other natural productions of their country. Their arms are bows and arrows. They live without laws, and almost without religion; have no alphabet and no coin, and trade entirely by barter. They live in tribes, which are just so many family associations, though they seldom form mutual alliances. Their language seems to be equally foreign to the Japanese, the Manchu, and the Kamtschatdale. The island presents on all sides lofty mountains, covered with beautiful verdure and magnificent forests, which abound with wild animals.

Marco Polo was the first to make known the existence of a country called by him "Zipangu." In 1542 Mendez Pinto, a Portuguese, was cast by storm on these shores, and a Portuguese settlement from Malacca was soon after made at Nangasaki, the commercial relations of which with the inhabitants were very considerable, and highly lucrative, till the interference, in 1585, of the Jesuits with the religious profession of the inhabitants, led to the persecution and final expulsion of the settlers. The Dutch, in 1600, with great difficulty prevailed on the Japanese to allow them to trade, on condition of their not interfering with the national religion; but the vexatious and harrassing regulations by which the trade is obstructed, and the very limited extent allowed to it, make it a matter of question how far the factory should be kept up by the Dutch government. The Russians tried some years ago to establish commercial relations with Japan; but their proposals were declined, and the envoys ordered not to return on pain of death. The internal history of Japan is almost unknown; and the statements that have reached us are too loose to admit of being classed as authentic history.



## A

### GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF

# A F R I C A.

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AFRICA, next to Asia, is the largest single continent of the world. It is situated between  $37^{\circ} 20'$  north, and  $34^{\circ} 50'$  south latitude, and between  $51^{\circ} 30'$  east, and  $17^{\circ} 33'$  west longitude; with an extreme length, from north to south, of 4,988 miles, and a greatest breadth, from east to west, of 4,618 miles. The superficial area is estimated at 11,870,000 square miles. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean; on the west by the Atlantic Ocean; on the south by the Antarctic Ocean, and on the east by the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea and the Isthmus of Suez. This vast peninsula is joined to Asia on the north-west by a narrow neck of land only 75 miles broad; and at the Strait of Bab-el-mandeb, the mouth of the Red Sea, it approaches within 36 miles of the same continent. It is separated from Europe by the Mediterranean, and at the Strait of Gibraltar the two continents approach within ten miles of each other.

Philologists have long and diversely argued the origin of the term Africa. The Greeks called this continent "Libya," and the Romans "Africa;" the former derived from *libis*, (the south wind,) and the latter probably from the Latin *aprica*, (sunny,) or the Greek negative *αφρικε*, (without cold.) It is, however, supposed by some to have been called Libya, from the name of a people found by the Greeks in a country west of Egypt, and who are called in the Hebrew Scriptures "Lehabim or Lubim." With respect of Africa it was the proper name of the city which the Romans called Carthago and the Greeks *καρχεδών*, and it is certain at least that it was originally applied to the country around Carthage, and afterwards to the whole continent. The term "afrygah," in the language of Carthage, signified a colony, as Carthage was of Tyre, and that term is still used by the Moors to designate the original dependencies of that city.

Unlike the other great continents, Africa presents a solid mass of land with a very regular coast, unbroken by large peninsulas, islands, bays or gulfs, except only on the south-western side, where the Gulf of Guinea makes a deep and wide indentation. The length of the coast line exceeds 16,000 miles, but throughout the whole of that space there are as yet only two navigable openings discovered, by which access to any considerable distance can be had into the interior of the continent. One of these, the Nile, has been known since the earliest dawn of history; the other, the Kawara or Niger, is of very recent discovery. In addition to this want of water communication, the access of travellers has been barred by the all but insuper-

able difficulties of passing the deserts, which occupy so large a surface, and serve as a wall between their sable natives and their lighter colored brethren of the north and east. The general characteristic of the surface is, though little is yet known of its details, that in most parts of its outline the countries immediately on the coast are low plains, above which the land rises by successive terraces, forming at their summit level an immense table-land, or a series of table-lands which seem to occupy the greater part of the unexplored regions.

The north-western portion of Africa contains a group of mountains, which, under the name of "Atlas," have been known from the highest antiquity. The main chain commences at Cape Geer, which rises perpendicularly from the Atlantic to a great height, and extends nearly due east to the meridian of Marocco, when it turns to the east-north-east and continues in that direction to  $5^{\circ}$  west, where there appears to be an extensive nucleus which contains the highest summits of the chain. From this point a chain extends along the western side of the basin of the river Mulwiah, nearly to its mouth, in latitude  $35^{\circ}$  N., while another branch under the name of "Jebel Tedla" proceeds in a north-easterly direction through Algeria, and terminates at the river Shellif, which probably interrupts the continuity of the chain, a little to the west of the first meridian. To the east of that river the range again rises, and forms south-east of Algiers the "Jebel Gergerah," latitude  $36^{\circ} 20'$  N., from which it declines to the south-east. Farther east several ridges extend in different courses into the territory of Tunis, terminating on one side in Capes Blanco and Bon, and on the other at the basin of the great salt lake of Marks and the gulf of Khabz or Cabes. The chain whose course we have traced has been sometimes distinguished as the Lesser Atlas, in consequence of its being supposed that a higher chain occupied the country farther inland between Barbary and the Great Desert. It has now been ascertained that no such chain exists, the country between the coast chain and deserts being described by the natives as more or less elevated, but without any range of mountains. From "Jebel Teuan," west of the Mulwiah, a minor range extends westward nearly parallel to the coast, and terminates with "Jebel Zatout" or Ape's Hill, at the Strait of Gibraltar. From the southern part of the great mountains another minor chain, named "Jebel Hadrar," extends first south and then westward towards the shores of the Atlantic near Cape Nun, while spurs diverge on both sides, forming the watersheds of the various wadies or torrents that pour their waters towards the sea or the desert. To the east of Lake Loudeah, a chain of hills, lower than the Atlas, but which may be considered as a continuation of the same system, extends in a direction nearly parallel to the shores of the Mediterranean, terminating in a chain of low hills which skirt the coasts of the great Syrtis. The only summit of the Atlas that has been accurately measured is "Miltzin," 27 miles south-east of Marocco, which has been found to be 11,200 feet above the level of the sea; but it is probable that this is by no means the highest in the range, as there are other summits which are permanently covered with snow, and which have been estimated to rise from 13,000 to 15,000 feet in elevation.

The "mountains of Abyssinia" form a chain remarkable for its elevation and extent, which proceeds in a direction from south to north, across the provinces of Shoa, Amhara, and Tigré, and is prolonged towards the south-west across the table-land of Gingiro and Narea, beyond which it is supposed to join or form a part of the celebrated "mountains of the Moon," of which nothing is known but the Arab name. This name is either *Qomr* or *Qamr*,

according to the diacritical marks employed. *Qomr* signifies an object of a white color—*Qamr* signifies the moon. If the former be the correct form, it may imply that these mountains are covered with snow, but as the name “mountains of the moon” is as old as the time of Ptolemy, the latter is more probably correct. Another chain appears to extend to the south-west from that which overtops Lake Dembea across the Bahr-el-Azrek, and to join the mountains of Dyre and Tegla to the south of Kordofan and Dar-Fur. Another very high chain extends through the eastern part of Tigré, and stretching in a direction from south to north, forms the famous defile of Taranta. Proceeding northward this chain follows the direction of the Red Sea, and in Nubia forms the mountains of Langay. The hills which form the basin of the Nile in Nubia and Egypt and the west coast of the Red Sea, may be considered as an extension of the Abyssinian mountains.

The “Mountains of Kong,” a name that has been given to a range which separates the low country of Guinea from the basin of the Kawara, have been supposed to extend eastward across the continent to join the mountains of the Moon. They appear to terminate westward in a very hilly country, which contains the sources of the Kawara, the Senegal, and the Gambia; in longitude 7° or 8° east they are cut through by the stream and valley of the Kawara, but beyond that, eastward, there are the “Mountains of Mandara,” with others in the interior, and the “Cameroons,” on the sea-coast, which appear to be connected with the Kong. The Cameroon mountains rise to an elevation of 13,000 feet, close to the sea, and in the adjoining Island of Fernando Po, Clarence Peak rises to 10,655 feet. These mountains appear to be of volcanic formation, and to be connected with those of Mandara by a chain of the same description. Beyond these scanty particulars, hardly anything is known in relation to this system.

In Southern Africa the “Mountains of Lupata,” or the *back-bone of the world*, extend in a line parallel to the south-east coast, from Cape Guardafui to the Cape of Good Hope, or nearly so, but nothing positive is known respecting them. The same may be said of the corresponding chain, which extends along the eastern regions of Congo, Angola, and Benguela, supporting the western side of the great table-land which is supposed to occupy the interior. But the mountains which occupy the extremity of the great peninsula are somewhat better known, as they form several chains of great height within the territory of the Cape of Good Hope. Of these, “Nieuveltdt” rises 10,000 feet, the “Compassberg” to 7,400 feet, and the “Table Mountain,” near the Cape, to 3,582 feet above the level of the sea.

Of the smaller plains and alluvial river-basins and deltas common to Africa with every other continent, there are none so extensive as to require particular notice in this place. But in its grand characteristic of deserts Africa is pre-eminent. The Great Desert, to which the Arabs give the name of *Es Sahara* or *Sah'ra*, (the Desert) by way of eminence, occupies a space of more than 46° of longitude, or about 3,000 miles in length, and 1,000 in breadth, the tropic of cancer running through the middle of its breadth. A great part of the surface is a dead level, stretching on every side like the ocean, and presenting a view only limited by the horizon. In some places it is a naked burning plain of sand; other parts consist of hard clay; and in some places the surface is covered with small sharp stones. Elsewhere it is diversified with ravines, rocks, and eminences, all alike barren and unfruitful, while the soft white sand is driven to and fro by every wind, and piled up into hillocks, constantly changing, and often burying

whole caravans in their bosoms. This vast tract, however, is not all a barren waste. It is sprinkled here and there with fertile oases, like islands in the sea, which render its dreariness the more awful from the contrast. In the eastern part of the desert some of these are large, and form a sort of petty kingdoms. In other parts they are only large enough to contain one or two villages, which serve as halting places for the caravans. Others of them afford only springs and wells for the refreshment of travellers, but too small a portion of cultivable soil to permit of settled habitation. The Sahara contains likewise many salt lakes, which afford abundance of natron and common salt, important articles of traffic between the desert tribes and the people of Soudan, where salt is wanting. Regular tracks of commerce have been established over this waste; and the camel, emphatically called the "ship of the desert," traverses the recesses of the Sahara, and caravans or companies of traders by its aid cross this torrid region in every direction. The traders are generally men inured from their infancy to the hardships and difficulties of these formidable journies; their food consists of camel's milk, with barley or Indian corn, and a few dates. Water is conveyed in goat skins, covered with naptha, and these are replenished at the wells which occur on the routes. Sometimes, however, in dry seasons the springs fail, and great numbers of travellers and their camels perish from thirst. Difficult, dangerous, and disagreeable as the journey is to the regular traders, it may well be imagined how much more so it must be to the poor negroes whom they bring with them in large numbers from Soudan, to supply the slave markets of Barbary and Turkey. Quite unaccustomed to such travelling, and often ill-supplied with food and water, these poor wretches speedily fall victims to the avarice of their masters. When wearied out they lie down and die, and the desert paths are whitened with their bones.

Besides the Sahara there are several other extensive wastes: the "Desert of Angad" occupies the western part of Algeria, and other deserts of larger extent appear to occupy Ajan, on the south-east, and the country of the Cimbebas, on the south-west. Another large desert extends from the southern borders of Benguela to the river Gariep; and to the south of that river elevated districts, called "Karoo," of several hundred miles in extent, occur between the high mountain ranges which constitute the Cape territory.

The only rivers in Africa at all worthy of notice, in a general description, are the Nile, the Senegal, the Gambia, the Kawara, the Congo, and some few others.

The "Nile," which traverses Egypt, Nubia, &c., through their whole extent from south to north, has ever been a river celebrated for its peculiarities. Its remote sources are conjectured to lie in the neighborhood of 7° north latitude; but little, if anything, is positively known of its higher course. The main river is formed by the junction of the Bahr-el-abiad, or White River, and the Azrek, or Blue River, in about latitude 15° north. After the junction the Nile makes a remarkable bend, like a great S, flowing 200 miles south, and then turning again to the north, its width varying from more than a mile to less than a quarter of a mile, and its channel being studded with numerous islands. In its progress through Nubia it forms six cataracts. The first occurs midway between Halfaiah and Shendi; the second, below Berder; the third, above Meraweh; the fourth, at Hannek; the fifth, at Wady-Halfa; and the sixth, and lowest, between Philæ and Elephantiné, 24° north latitude. These cataracts, however, are generally numbered upwards, the first being reckoned the sixth,

and the sixth the first. The Nile consists of too large a body of water to be lost in the immense deserts through which it flows, but it diminishes gradually as it proceeds northward. It is narrower at Cairo than at Siout; and narrower at Siout than at Thebes; but from Wady-Halfa to Thebes its volume continues apparently the same. An immense quantity of water is also diverted from the river and exhausted in artificial irrigation; and when the great canals of Egypt were kept in good repair, the river must have been still more diminished towards its mouth. At Assouan its width is about 3,000 feet; at Hajar-Silsili only 1,700; and at Oudi, 36 miles above Cairo, 2,900; at Rosetta, 1,800; and at Damietta, only 800 feet. The Nile empties into the Mediterranean by a delta, after a course, variously estimated, at 2,700 to 3,000 miles in length.

The "Kawara, the Quorra, or Niger," has its principal source at the base of Mount Loma, 250 miles east of Cape Sierra Leone. It flows first in a north-easterly direction for about 600 miles, then almost due north for 180 miles, forming in its progress the large lake "Debo," or "Dibbie;" it then turns again to the north-east, but from Timbuctoo to Yaouri, a distance of 600 miles, its course has not yet been explored. From Yaouri, 580 miles from the sea, it flows with a large navigable stream, south, south-east, and lastly south-west into the Bights of Benin and Biafra, by 22 mouths, of which the principal are the Formosa or River of Benin, the Waree, the Nun, the Bonny, and the Old Calabar. In exploring this mighty river Park perished, and the honor of proving its geographical connections was left to be earned by the indefatigable Landers, whose names will ever be remembered in the annals of African geography. The length of the river is estimated at 2,000 miles.

The "Senegal" rises near Timbo, 210 miles east of Sierra Leone, where it bears the name of Ba-fing, (Black River.) It first flows northerly, and then westerly into the Atlantic Ocean, 100 miles north of Cape Verde. It receives a great number of affluents, and in its lower course forms several large islands, but ultimately reaches the sea in a single stream. It is navigable for several hundreds of miles, and the length of its course is about 950.

The "Gambia" has its source in the plateau of Fouta-Toro, and has a westerly course of 700 miles into the Atlantic Ocean, which it reaches 100 miles south of Cape Verde. The navigation is uninterrupted from the sea to the rapids of Baraconda, a distance of about 400 miles. Along the coast to the south of the Gambia are several large rivers, the courses of which are not yet well known; but some of which are said to communicate with each other, and with the Gambia by their branches. These are the Casamansa, the Cacheo, the Jeba, and the Grande.

The "Congo," or Zaire, is a large river between Loango and Congo, which enters the Atlantic with a great body of water, in 6° 5' S. latitude. At its mouth it is ten miles wide, a little higher up it diminishes to seven, and at 140 miles from the sea narrows commence and continue for forty miles, through which space the river is generally not more than 300 or 500 yards wide, and generally confined between rocks. Above the narrows the river again expands, to two, three, and sometimes to four miles. Of its origin and affluents nothing positive is known. It overflows its banks in the wet season.

The other rivers will be noticed under the heads of those districts through which they flow.

The Tchad is the largest lake yet discovered in Africa. Its centre lies in  $15^{\circ}$  E. longitude, and  $13^{\circ} 30'$  N. latitude: its length being about 200 miles, and its breadth 150 miles. The water is fresh, and it is said to have no outlet. The other principal lakes are:—Fittre, a collection of water east of the Tchad, of which nothing is known; Debo, formed by the Kawara, between  $15^{\circ}$  and  $16^{\circ}$  N. latitude; Dembea, or Tzana, formed by the Bahr-el-Azrek, in Abyssinia; Birket-el-Keroun, formed by the Nile, in Egypt; the Salt Lake, or marshes of Melgig; Shott and Loudeah, in Barbary; and Maravi, a large lake, said to exist in the interior, north-west of Mozambique, but of which nothing whatever is known.

There are not many islands off the African coast, but several of them are large, and most of great commercial importance. They may be classified according to their geographical position:—on the south-east coast are the Madagascar, the Comoro Islands, Bourbon, Mauritius, the Amiranti Isles, the Seychelles, Zanguebar, Pemba, Mozambique, Querimba, &c.; east of Cape Guardafui, Socotra; off the north-west coast, Madeira, Desertas, and Porto Santo, the Canary Islands, and the Cape Verde Islands; in the Gulf of Guinea, Fernando Po, Principe, San Thomé and Annobon; in the Atlantic Ocean, St. Helena, Ascension, and Tristan de Cunha; off the coast of Tunis, in the Mediterranean, Jerbeh and Karkineh; and in the Red Sea, Dhalak and others. These will be described elsewhere.

The central portion of Africa lies between the tropics, and its climate, generally speaking, is tropical. It may even be said that the influence of this tropical climate is felt over a great part of those countries whose geographical position should have exempted them from it; for it is really only that strip of Barbary which the Atlas protects from the fiery winds of the desert, and that part of Southern Africa protected by the Nieuveldeit and other mountains, near the Cape, that enjoy the advantages of countries situated within the temperate zones. With the exception, therefore, of these narrow tracts, of those regions in the interior, to which their elevation imparts the coolness of higher latitudes, and the borders of the great lakes and rivers, every part of Africa is burned up by continual heat, and the continent generally may be considered as the warmest part of the globe. Nothing moderates the climatic intensity of these regions but the annual rains, the sea winds, and the elevation of the soil. Unlike the like regions in America, where vast rivers roll through overshadowing forests, the equatorial regions of Africa present one enormous desert of sand, which by reflecting the sun's rays perpetuates a heated atmosphere, and fills it with sulphurous exhalations, unfitting it for the residence of either man or beast, except in a few green patches, where small communities depend on a precarious existence. In the well-watered regions, the moisture, combined with the heat, though productive of the most luxuriant vegetation, is extremely hostile to animal life.

As little is known of the mineralogy, as any other department of the physical formation of this continent. Whatever is said on this subject can only be partially correct. We have, nevertheless, endeavored to arrange in the following table the principal countries, in the order of their respective abundance in the minerals they produce:—

## MINERALOGICAL TABLE OF AFRICA.

DIAMONDS.....	Region of Moghreb—( <i>Algeria</i> .)
OTHER PRECIOUS STONES..	Negroland—( <i>Angola, Bihe, Cassanga, Muchingi, and the country of the Malouas</i> ; Egypt—( <i>in the Arabian chain of mountains</i> .)
GOLD.....	Negroland—( <i>Boure, Kamalia, Mandingo, Wasaw, Dankara, Haoussa, Wangara, Bambouk, Akim, &amp;c.</i> ;) Western Africa—( <i>Abuta, &amp;c.</i> ;) and the Region of the Nile—( <i>Kamamil, the country along the Bahr-el-Abiad, Abyssinia, &amp;c. &amp;c.</i> )
SILVER.....	Eastern Africa—( <i>Chicova</i> ;) and Negroland—( <i>the plateau of Timbo, Bagharmeh, &amp;c.</i> )
COPPER.....	Negroland—( <i>country of the Malouas, Borgo or Dar-Saleh, Dar-Fur, &amp;c.</i> ;) Eastern Africa—( <i>Countries of the Cazembes, the Movyzas, and the Maquainas, Butuo, Zumbo, and Inham-bane</i> ;) South Africa—( <i>Country of the Hottentots</i> ;) Region of the Nile—( <i>Fertit, Kordofan, &amp;c.</i> ;) Region of Moghreb—( <i>Marocco, &amp;c.</i> )
LEAD.....	Region of Moghreb—( <i>Algeria, &amp;c.</i> )
IRON.....	Negroland—( <i>Bambouk, Timbo, Kaile, Dentilia, Angola, Lo-ango, Benguela, Molouas, Sala, Wassoulo, Bere, Mandara, Calanna, &amp;c.</i> ;) South Africa—( <i>Country of Maquainas</i> ;) East Africa—( <i>Country of the Cazembes</i> ;) Region of Moghreb—( <i>Algeria, &amp;c.</i> ;) and Region of the Nile—( <i>Abyssinia</i> .)
SALT.....	Region of Moghreb—( <i>Marocco, Tagazza, Aroan, Bilma, &amp;c.</i> ;) Region of the Nile—( <i>Baylur, Kordofan, Sennaar, &amp;c.</i> ;) and Negroland—( <i>Quisama, Angola, Benguela, Saley or Vadai, Dar-Fur, &amp;c. &amp;c.</i> )

The botany of Africa is only known to a very limited extent, our knowledge being confined almost entirely to the sea-coasts, while the interior is an entire blank, in every sense of the word. The vegetation of the Barbary States is very much allied to that of the southern portions of Europe. Oranges, olives, the arborescent ricinus, and the date-tree, grow equally well in both countries. A somewhat higher degree of heat in this part of Africa favors, however, the development of several vegetable forms unknown in Spain or Italy; but they are, nevertheless, only different in species, without being so distinct as to constitute new genera. The plants of Barca have likewise a great similarity to those of Europe, and even some of them are of a kind which seems peculiar to the torrid zone. The "zizyphus-lotus," or jujub, is so abundant in this country, that some ancient tribes were fed exclusively with its fruit. Egypt presents a great number of peculiar plants. Upper Egypt produces many species of the acacia family, the leaves of which, under the name of senna, form a considerable branch of commerce. Besides the date-tree and the chamærops, there is also a remarkable kind of palm called the doum-palm or cucifera-thebiaca. Several aquatic plants cover the surface of the Nile, with their large leaves and their flowers, which float gracefully on its waters. In Abyssinia the vegetation has not yet acquired a tropical character; it is, nevertheless, connected with the plants of Mozambique and the Cape of Good Hope. In this country Bruce found a species of *protea*, and Salt, a *pelargonium*, genera which were believed to have been peculiar to the Cape of Good Hope and New-Holland. Coffee grows naturally on the west coast of the Red Sea, and in the interior, to the southward of Abyssinia. The plants of Upper Egypt, on the contrary, and of the country further inland, have a great resemblance to those of the west coast of Africa; but no country offers in its plants such a singular physiognomy as the Cape of Good Hope. It is there that we find numerous *ericæ*, *proteæ*,

*pelargonio*, *mesembryanthema*, *ixiæ*, *stapeliæ*, &c. The plants of the equinoctial regions have a strong resemblance to those of the west coast. Among the trees are found the *adinsonia digitata* or baobab, that colossus of the vegetable kingdom, which grows also in Nubia; the *bombax pentandrum*, the *elais guineensis*, and others. These remarkable plants are found along a very considerable length of the coast. The *sterculia acuminata*, a tree the seeds of which are said to have the property of rendering the most unwholesome water drinkable, grows in Guinea and at Sierra Leone. In Senegambia, indeed, there are many plants which also grow in Madagascar, the Indian Archipelago and South America, but these only grow in places characterized alike by heat and moisture. With respect to the sandy and arid locations, they furnish vegetable productions similar to those of Egypt and Arabia. The alimentary plants cultivated by the natives of the west coasts are maize, cassava, pulse, &c. The best fruit-trees of the same country are the banana, the papaw, lemons, oranges, tamarinds, the *elais guineensis*, which furnishes the palm oil, and the *raphia vinifera*, which produces the famous palm wine. Some botanists think that the greater part of these plants are of an origin foreign to Africa. Thus, an American origin is assigned to maize, cassava, the ananas, the papaw, and tobacco; while the banana, the lemon, the orange, the tamarind, and the sugar-cane, are ascribed to Asia. The interior of Equinoctial Africa is unknown to botanists; but if we compare the productions of Senegal, Benin, Congo, and Upper Egypt, we find among them such striking relations as clearly to prove that the same climatic causes originate the same vegetable productions, without perceiving any necessity for supposing their transmigration from one country to another.

The animal kingdom differs in most respects from that of Asia, and has no analogy, except in the single instance of some similarity between a few animals of Arabia and those of Eastern Africa. In the whole central and northern regions are found lions, panthers, jackals, gazelles, antelopes, and ostriches, of kinds that are not found south of the tropic of Capricorn. Everywhere the antelopes are the prey of the feline family, and of the jackals, hyænas, and pythons. The one-humped, or Arabian camel, now abundant in Northern Africa, was introduced to the west of the Nile only in the third century. Beyond the Sahara, under the influence of the humidity produced by the influence of the great rivers of Senegambia and Soudan, appears a creation of which no species have ever crossed the desert. There we find the African elephant, the two-horned rhinoceros, the tall giraffe, and the clumsy hippopotamus. Between the tropics are found various species of the cynocephalous monkey, none of which ever inhabited Egypt, but of which, nevertheless, three kinds were worshipped in that country. Monkeys with painted faces are found in Guinea; some are found at the southern extremity of the continent; and others, again, from Sennaar to Caffreland. In the basin of the Upper Nile are two kinds of the "fennec;" its immense ears, exceeding two-thirds of the length of its dog-like body, form a wide distinction between it and the other quadrumana. Figured on the monuments of Lower Egypt, with the dog's heads, the sacred beetle, and the antelopes of the same region, the fennec establishes the Æthiopic origin of the people who raised these monuments. Along the coasts of Zanzibar, the Cape buffalo roams in the same forests with the elephant. South of the tropics the antelope is found in great numbers, but deer are wanting. There also are found the zebra and the quagga; the engallo, or



phacochere; and the Æthiopic wild boar, which figures in the mosaics of Palestrina.

Among the reptiles of Africa are crocodiles, *succos*, *khamses*, monitors, *tupinambis*, and *chamæleons*; the three last of which are found nowhere else than in Spain and the Moluccas. The birds along the confines of Asia and Europe have a strong analogy to those of the respective continents. The regions of the Nile, and the shores of the Mediterranean, contain species analagous to those of Arabia, Persia, and Spain. In the sandy deserts of Central Africa are species fitted for their solitudes; while the southern extremity contains birds which are new and peculiar. The ostrich is found in the equatorial zone, and the deserts; the messenger, or secretary, a singular bird of prey, that feeds upon reptiles, is found near the Cape. Few regions, indeed, are more prolific of rapacious birds than Africa; and the animals that serve for their prey are abundant and easily procured. Large carrion vultures, griffons, the hideous chincow, and the oricow, are always on the watch for the fall of some animal. Eagles are found in every region along the banks of the lakes and rivers, and the sea coasts. The other rapacious birds are kites, sparrow-hawks, vultures, bats, buzzards, and falcons. Crows are abundant, Guinea-fowl, grouse, partridges, and quails are much more so. Cranes, flamingoes, the pelican, and a great variety of water-fowl, frequent the lakes and rivers; and in the equinoctial regions are parrots and paroquets innumerable, and birds of the most beautiful plumage.

Noxious insects and reptiles of almost every species abound; scorpions, scolopendras, enormous spiders, and other venomous creatures. But the greatest curse of Africa is the swarms of locusts, and *termites*, or white ants, which frequently lay waste whole districts. The ants abound in the tropical regions, and even for some distance beyond them: they build clay-houses of enormous size, and devour every sort of animal and vegetable substance that comes in their way. The locusts are still more destructive: they are gregarious like the ants, and the region over which they have passed has the appearance of having been clean swept. When on the wing, they form so dense a body as to hide the sun like a black cloud.

The physical characteristics of the natives of Africa distinguish them from all the other great families of the human race; but they scarcely differ more from others than among themselves. As the interior regions are almost entirely unknown, it is impossible to say what varieties may be found there; but along the coasts, throughout the Sahara, and the greater part of the basins of the Kawara, Lake Tchad, and the Nile, the varieties already known are so numerous, and so perfectly distinct, that it is not easy to say what characteristics they have in common, except those that distinguish man from the brute creation.

The central and equinoctial regions, extending along both oceans, are possessed by numerous races and varieties of the black-colored, woolly-haired people, which are classed by naturalists as the Æthiopic, or black race, or negroes, properly so called. They are essentially a distinct race, and have under their skin a particular apparatus which is entirely wanting in the white man, and which is the seat of a pigment or coloring matter.

The Sahara and Moghreb are possessed by people of many varieties, all referable to the Caucasian, or white race, differing in complexion according to the climate, and other physical circumstances, but having nothing in common with the proper negro, except color, which in some of them is almost or quite black in those parts of the body which are exposed.

Among these the most remarkable are the Berebers, or Amazighs, who occupy the high valleys of the Atlas Mountains, and a portion of the plains of Marocco, Algeria, and Tunis, and are divided into many tribes, some of which are quite independent. They are supposed to be the remains of the aboriginal people of these regions. The Shellukhs, Tibboos, and Tuaricks, are the principal desert tribes physically allied to the Berebers. The low, uncultivated country of Moghreb is occupied by numerous tribes of Arabs, while the cultivated districts and the towns, along the narrow strip of country on the southern skirts of the Sahara, between the desert and the Kawara, are possessed by the Moors, a swarthy race, apparently sprung from an intermixture of the aborigines with Phœnician, Roman, Gothic, Vandalic, Arabic, and Turkish blood. Turks of pure lineage are found in Barbary, and also a great many Jews.

In the regions of the Nile there are likewise many varieties, chiefly Caucasian, though some are decidedly Æthiopic. The great body of the people in Egypt are of Arabic origin, while their rulers are Turks. The deserts on both sides of the Nile are possessed by roving Arab tribes; and the ancient Egyptians are represented by a few thousand scattered Copts. The dominant races in Abyssinia are apparently the remains of a colony from the eastern shores of the Red Sea. Nubia is occupied by several mixed races, negro as well as Caucasian, and varieties of the latter are found along the coasts of the Red Sea and the Gulf of Aden, as far at least as Cape Guardafui.

In South Africa, beyond the country of the proper negroes, we find two distinct races—the Caffers and the Hottentots, who cannot very well be referred to any other known family, and certainly to neither the Caucasian or Æthiopic. The Caffers, however, are a tall, well-proportioned, handsome people, nearly approaching Caucasians in figure, features, and expression; but they have thick lips, though not woolly hair, and their complexion is a blackish grey, or in some cases even jet black. The Hottentots, on the contrary, are an ugly race. Their hair is black, sometimes brownish, very short and woolly, but their skin is a dark brown, or yellow, and not black. They are the original possessors of the country, which extends east and north of the Cape of Good Hope: having for eastern neighbors the Caffers, varieties of whom extend along the coast from about Algoa Bay to Sofala; but how far inland to the north-west is not known.

Of the languages of these various races almost nothing is known. M. Balbi has, nevertheless, contrived to arrange them into great ethnological divisions; but his system is too prolix and uninteresting for a work of this description, and could prove of little advantage to the general reader.

The religions of the natives of Africa are as little known to the civilized world as the other details of their economy. Fetichism, or idol-worship, however, seems to be that professed by almost all the negro races, and by some branches of the Atlantic or Bereber family. These people, who see in the most common things objects of adoration, appear to admit in general of a good and bad principle. They have lucky and unlucky days; their priests are dexterous jugglers, and profess to secure both men and beasts from the influence of evil spirits. In the States of Barbary, in Egypt, the greater part of Nubia, and some other parts, the religion of Mahomet is predominant: but some of the professing tribes have neither a priesthood nor places of worship. This religion seems also to be professed throughout the north-eastern and central parts of Soudan; and the Mandingoes and other

tribes have carried it to the shores of the western ocean. Christianity is professed by the Copts of Egypt, and also by the Abyssinians, where, however, it is mixed with many superstitious and idolatrous rites and notions.

The European colonists, and the negroes of Liberia, of course profess the religion of their birth-places, and are Protestant or Catholic according to their descent. The Catholic population, however, is small in either the British colonies or in the Republic of Liberia; and, perhaps, Protestantism is unknown in Algeria and the French colonies on the western coast. Judaism is maintained by a great number of Israelites in the States of Barbary, in Egypt, and in Abyssinia; and there are a few Guebres, or votaries of Magism, in Mozambique.

The forms of government found in Africa comprise every diversity known to the world. The little Arab state of Damer, in Nubia, is a monarchical theocracy; Fouta-Toro and Fouta-Jalo, in Senegambia, are oligarchical theocracies, and the kingdom of Suz, in Moghreb, is a feudal oligarchy. Marocco, Benin, Yarriba, and many others, exhibit despotism of the purest description; and the kingdom of Dahomey groans under a species of despotism of which there are few examples in the world. All the first-born males belong to the king, who causes them to be brought up publicly; he has even the monopoly of all the women of his kingdom; and every man who wishes to marry is obliged to pay him 20,000 cowries for a wife. The king of Moropua is perhaps the most absolute of all potentates, for he even proscribes for his subjects the time of their amusements. Several of the kings of Guinea, and Eastern Africa, also exercise the most absolute power. They send their emissaries to steal men from whatever country they choose, and afterwards dispose of them to strangers in exchange for goods. It would, however, be a tedious task to mention in detail the governments of the numerous petty nations which people this continent. The governments of the greater states are all despotic; and of the smaller communities, many are patriarchal, and vary in different degrees between despotism and anarchy.

The only free government, founded on republican principles, is the new state of Liberia. Its institutions are moulded after those of the United States of America, and there the people enjoy the blessings of civilization and liberty. In the colonies of Great Britain the governments are as liberal as circumstances will admit of, and civil liberty is the basis on which their institutions are erected. They are governed immediately by viceroys. The colonies of the French have become an integral portion of the republic, but as yet they are swayed by the military; nor is it probable that for some time to come they will be deemed fit to appreciate the rights of their republican connection. The free governments, however, that have been planted, may, nevertheless, have a beneficial effect on Africa; and who can say that they have not been placed by a wise Providence in their present commanding attitudes, as a nucleus, around which a future civilization may expand and extend, gradually, over the barbaric nations which now form their inland barriers.

Though the more civilized people of Africa are very far from equalling those of Asia in respect of industry, they are nevertheless not so degraded as is commonly believed. The inhabitants of the principal towns in many of the states carry on various trades, and excel in the manufacture of different kinds of cloth, and in the dressing of skins. Several towns in Marocco and in Soudan are celebrated for the beauty of their leather, and

the cotton fabrics of Egypt have of late acquired great importance. In Tunis linen cloths and shawls are manufactured, which are in great demand throughout Northern Africa. The negroes, though bad hunters, are excellent fishermen, and expert as goldsmiths; they can give steel a good temper, and reduce gold-wire to an extreme fineness. Many work iron and silver, and good cabinet-makers may be found among them. Among many of the negroes the art of dyeing is carried to a certain degree of perfection, and in Bornou the people make cotton cloths of the finest and closest tissue. The Bushmen of South Africa are good forgers, armourers, potters, and carvers. Several tribes in South Africa also work copper mines; and in Congo the people even cut precious stones, and make of them pendants for their ears, bracelets, &c. In fact almost every mechanic art has in one place or another advanced to an astonishing perfection; and sufficient is known to stamp the Africans as a race not devoid of genius or talent, but as a people possessed of many of the prerequisites of civilization as understood in Europe and America.

From the remotest antiquity Africa has exhibited a vast inland commercial movement, and this still constitutes one of the characteristic features of the continent. The towns of Soudan are visited by caravans, which set out every year from the extremities of Africa to exchange the produce of their own countries, or those of Europe and Asia, for that of Central Africa. Mourzouk, in Fezzan, and Cobbé, in Dar-Fur, are as it were the northern and eastern gates of Soudan, and a large trade is supported with Egypt and Tripoli. The Arabs of Suez have possessed themselves of all the trade which that city carried on with Morocco, and have become, like the Fezzaners and Furians, the immediate agents of the commercial enterprise of Soudan with Moghreb. Many of the inland tribes carry on a large trade with Senegambia and the other colonies on the west coast. In the regions of the Nile, Cairo is the great mart between Africa and Asia, and this great city, by means of the people of Fezzan, &c., and the merchants of Khartum and Berber, has commercial relations with Tunis, Algeria, Fez, and Morocco, and the great towns of Soudan, Nubia, and Abyssinia. Speaking generally, we may say that commerce, to a certain extent, is the principal occupation of several African nations. Omitting the Jews, the Mandingoes, the Fezzaners, the Furians, and others already mentioned, the following are the principal trading people—the Serrawoolis, in Senegambia; the Somaulis; the Ghiberti, and the Movizas: all these carry on extensive transactions in several parts of the continent; several possess ships, and all are expert and able merchants. It is curious also to see the Laoubes, a people among the Jolofs, whose manners and customs resemble those of the Gipseys; and the Kroomen of the Grain Coast, and some other negroes living between Cape St. Ann and Cape Palmas, who leave their country for certain periods, to carry on trade or hire themselves as seamen on board of foreign vessels; and also, to find a great number of the Foulahs and Kenouz performing the same active and laborious duties which are performed in Europe by the Savoyards, Auvergnats, Tyrolese, Gallegos, Friulese, Irish, and others.

The most important commercial towns in Africa are:—Fez, Morocco, and Tangier, in Morocco; Algiers; Tunis; Tripoli; Mourzouk and Ghadames, in Fezzan; Cairo, Alexandria, Khartum, Berber, Suakim, Cossier, and Massuah, in Egypt and Nubia; Adowa, in Abyssinia; Angornou, Bornou, Kano, Saccatoo, and Kashna, in Central Soudan; Koulfé, in Nyffé; Commassie, Grand Bassan, Cape Lahou, Yandi, &c., in Ashantee,

Timbuctoo, Jenneh, Sego, Sansanding, and Kankan, in Western Soudan; Cape Coast, Elmina, Bonny, Calebar, &c., in Guinea; St. Louis, at the mouth of the Senegal; Freetown, at Sierra Leone; Cassanga, Yanvo, Bihi, Bailundo, Missel, Holo-ho, &c., inland; Cabenda, Ambriz, &c., on the coast of Congo; St. Paul de Loanda, Benguela, Mozambique, &c., in Portuguese Africa; and Berbera, in the country of the Somaulis.

The articles most in demand in the interior of Africa, are pistols, muskets, sabres, glass-ware, coarse woollen and silk stuffs, pottery, brass, printed cottons, muslins, writing paper, perfumes, spices, &c. The principal exports are—gold dust, ivory, ostrich feathers, hides, leather, indigo, senna, wax, &c.; to which we must still add, *SLAVES*. Slaves, indeed, form a staple article of the African trade, and in spite of all the laws and regulations made for its suppression, the trade is still carried on with the greatest activity on both coasts, and even by way of Tripoli and Egypt. The internal slave-trade, always great, appears even to have increased in consequence of the difficulties attending exportation by sea. The rulers of the Mahomedan states make frequent incursions upon their idolatrous neighbors, for the purpose of procuring slaves for sale; and even the pseudo-Christian Abyssinians seize the Shangallas for the same unhollowed purpose; and we may add, to their shame, Anglo-Americans and Brazilian Portuguese are now the grand encouragers of the traffic; but it is pleasing at the same time to know that the United States' government is opposed, in all its influence, to its continuance.

The circulating medium in African trade, except in the states of Barbary, Egypt, &c., where a civilized currency is used, consists of salt, tibbar, and cowries. Tibbar or gold dust, of which the greater part is gathered in Central Soudan, is current throughout the whole continent, but differs in value according as it is abundant, or otherwise. The want of salt in the interior, and the difficulty of transporting so bulky an article, have so enhanced its value, that pieces of salt are used for money in many places. In the country of the Mandingoes, for instance, a piece of salt  $2\frac{1}{2}$  feet long, 14 inches broad, and 2 inches thick, is worth from 5 to 10 dollars; in Dar-Fur 12 lbs. weight of salt are equivalent to *a slave 14 years of age*; and at a greater distance from the place where it is made, the value augments in proportion, till it is worth its weight in gold! Cowries, though of no intrinsic value, are nevertheless the most common money in Soudan, Guinea, and the table-land of Senegambia. These pretty little shells, which are fished in immense quantities at the Maldives, have in the interior of Africa a value nearly ten times their worth in Bengal, where 2,500 cowries are only equivalent to one shilling sterling. The principal current money in Abyssinia consists of pieces of cotton, worth a dollar; and when a smaller sum is required, the piece is cut into proportionate lengths.

The preceding details exhibit, in a great measure, the social condition of the people of Africa; but the following particulars will serve to give a more complete, though necessarily a very imperfect view, of this important subject. Africa presents several indigenous centres of civilization, while for others it is indebted to Europe and Asia; and in one particular to the United States of America. The first and most ancient is found in the region of the Nile, where, before the dawn of history, the Egyptians and the people of Meroë appear to have cultivated the arts and sciences, and where they have left, for the wonder and admiration of mankind, most imposing monuments of their genius and skill. The ancient civilization of Axum and Gondar appears to have emanated from Meroë, while the social

state of Middle and Lower Nubia, and the oases adjoining Egypt, appears to have originated from Egyptian colonists. The other centres of civilization, which are found in Soudan, deserve, no less than the first, the attention of philosophers. The particular character of the social system among the Foulahs and the Sousons, in Senegambia; the progress made by the Ardrahs—a progress which has carried them even to the invention of a species of writing; the imperfect civilization of the Dahomeys, Beninese, Dagoumbas, and other nations of Guinea and Congo; of the Movizas, Bushmen, Maquinis, and others, in South Africa,—affords some reason to believe that these people, free from foreign influence, have followed a particular direction in the development of their intellectual faculties, and have advanced but very slowly towards civilization. Among the Ashantees, the most powerful and most polished people of Guinea, there are several traditions, customs, and laws, which may be attributed to their ancient connection with Carthage and Egypt; and this remark may be applied to several other nations of inland Africa. The people of Timbuctoo, Bornou, Kashna, Haoussa, and other countries of Soudan, appear to have been indebted to the Arabs, if not entirely, at least in a great measure, for the state of civilization, imperfect as it is, in which modern travellers have found them.

As to the ancient and modern tribes of the Great Berber or Atlantic Family, which has successively come in contact with the Phœnicians, Carthaginians, Greeks, and Romans, and afterwards with the Arabs, it is natural to believe that it is to these polished nations that they owe their slight degree of civilization.

To these two kinds of indigenous civilization, we have to add two others foreign to Africa, into which, since the dawn of history, at four successive epochs, they have been imparted by two European and two Asiatic nations, namely, the Carthaginians and the Arabs of the Semitic family, and the Greeks and Romans of the Græco-Latin family. But the influence of the Carthaginians, Greeks, and Romans, never extended beyond the Sahara. Towards the fourth century Christianity was established in North Africa, along the slopes of the Atlas, in Nubia and Abyssinia, in the latter of which it still nominally prevails. Three centuries later the Arabs overran all Northern Africa, crossed the Sahara, and passed along the east coast as far as Sofala, everywhere introducing Islamism, and its imperfect civilization; and, even yet in those countries, the Arabic language is the sole vehicle of civilization and science. But beyond the pale of Islam the whole of Africa is barbarous; most of the people are in the lowest stage of savage life; and the modern Europeans have, for the period of three centuries, instead of endeavoring to introduce among them the civilization and the religion which themselves possessed, rather treated them as beasts, carrying them away in millions as slaves; fostering all their most evil propensities, and spreading desolation and misery over every region within the reach of the nefarious traffic.

A new element, however, has now been introduced as a civilizing agent into the social life of Africa. The Colonies and Missionary Stations of England and the United States have already become as so many centres, from which the elements of civilization diverge, and spread from the south and the west those blessings, which are being enjoyed by the respective nations to which they belong. These are of very recent date. With regard to Liberia, the influence of the social position of that republic must act energetically, the people being of the same origin and lineage as those

over whom its institutions are intended to be developed. The native tribes will at once comprehend that they are capable of enjoying the same advantages with the more polished congeners, and by a constant intercommunication gradually assume those better principles, which, no doubt, will eventually overthrow their existing barbarism, and raise from them that cloud which has overveiled their destiny from their first origin. Speaking of the colonization of the United States' negroes in Africa, the Hon. Henry Clay makes use of the following language: "I confess," says that great man, "that without indulging in any undue feeling of superstition, it does seem to me that it may have been among the dispensations of Providence to permit the wrongs under which Africa has suffered, that her children might be returned to their original home, civilized, and imbued with the benign spirit of Christianity, and prepared, ultimately, to redeem that great continent from barbarism and idolatry."—(*Letter to Richard Pindell, Esq., 17th February, 1849.*)

The imperfect knowledge we have of Africa, and its political divisions, disqualifies us from giving any very correct accounts of the nations which inhabit its several parts. We shall, therefore, have to consider it under an arbitrary arrangement, but one sufficient to preserve the geographical context to the whole. The following exhibits the outline which we intend to pursue in our descriptions:

- I. THE REGION OF THE NILE, including Abyssinia, Nubia, and Egypt.
- II. MOGHREB, including the Barbary States and the Sahara.
- III. SOUDAN OR NEGROLAND, including Senegambia, Guinea, and the basins of the Kawara and the Tchad; or in other words, all the region between the Sahara and the ocean, eastward to Abyssinia, and southward to the central Mountains of the Moon.
- IV. SOUTHERN AFRICA, including all that portion of the continent which lies south of Abyssinia and the Mountains of the Moon; and
- V. and lastly—the AFRICAN ISLANDS.

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## THE REGION OF THE NILE.

THE region watered by the Nile forms a long tract of country lying between the Desert and the Red Sea, and occupying the north-east portion of the African continent. It extends from  $7^{\circ}$  to  $32^{\circ}$  north latitude, or about 1,750 miles from south to north, and between the meridians of  $30^{\circ}$  and  $43^{\circ}$  east longitude, with a breadth varying from about 1,000 miles at the south to 130 or less at its northern extremity. The superficial area may be estimated at about 700,000 square miles. Within this region are included the three countries which are known under the names of Egypt, Nubia and Abyssinia, each of which will form a separate section, though the greater part of the whole is now under the dominion of the Egyptian government.

### EGYPT.

THIS ancient and celebrated kingdom occupies the whole of the region of the Nile, north of  $24^{\circ} 3'$  N. latitude; but of this large space of 160,000

square miles little more than a tenth part is adapted to cultivation, the remainder consisting of salt marshes, sandy plains, or rocky and barren mountains. The cultivated land of Egypt consists of the long valley of the Nile, which measures above 500 miles along the course of the river, with an average breadth of only eight or ten miles; and a large triangular plain measuring about 150 miles along the sea, from which it extends about 100 miles inland to the point where it joins the valley. Besides these, there is likewise the province of Faïoum or Fyoun, which is watered by a canal branching from the Nile, and comprises about 340 square miles.

The valley of the Nile is bounded on both sides by ranges of mountains from the Cataracts to near Cairo, where they diverge to the east and west respectively. The general character of the western range is that of a limestone formation, containing numerous fossil shells. The eastern range differs somewhat in character, as it rises more abruptly and often approaches close to the margin of the river. The elevation of these ridges is only a few hundred feet, and the eastern branch, which extends from Cairo to Suez, does not exceed 400 feet. In both ranges are numerous ravines which afford passages from the banks of the Nile into the eastern and western deserts. The great valley itself has the same inclination as the waters of the river, which is about two inches in the mile, so that Assuan being about 460 miles from the sea, should be only 107 feet above its level. The slope, however, is not gradual through all this distance. It is greatest immediately north of Assuan, where the fall of the water is  $7\frac{1}{2}$  inches in the mile, and diminishes almost to nothing as it approaches the Delta. The bed of the river, however, does not lie along the *bottom* of the valley, but along the top of a narrow ridge formed by the continual deposit of mud during the periodical inundations; and the same is the case with the Bahr Joussef, whose channel likewise forms a narrow ridge, with a hollow between it and the Nile. The banks consist of a succession of rich plains of unequal width, studded with little groves of palm trees, each of which hides a village. These groves, animated by innumerable flocks of turtle doves, pigeons and other birds, are surrounded with cultivated land, which is sometimes covered by the inundation; and on the retiring of the waters or at other seasons by irrigation, is clothed with the richest verdure and the most luxuriant crops.

At the northern end of the long valley, below the point where the mountains diverge and between them and the sea, lies the plain of Lower Egypt, which is almost a dead level intersected by the two great branches of the Nile. These branches form between them the celebrated "Delta." On each side of the Delta is a level plain of the same character. The whole of these plains is intersected in every direction by numerous canals, which convey the water of the river to every part, and thereby produce a continual verdure. The soil is rich and productive, and is covered with an excellent growth of shrubs and copsewood. About 60 miles above Cairo, a gap in the western mountains affords a passage for a branch or canal of the Nile into a large district called Faïoum, through which the waters flow in numerous streams to the Birket-el-Keroun or ancient Lake Mœris, converting a large portion of desert into the most fertile and most beautiful province of the country. Here the eye beholds smiling fields covered with a luxurious and almost tropical magnificence of vegetation, and forming a beautiful contrast to the barren desert that everywhere surrounds them, and of which they seem to have been once a part. The Faïoum is densely peopled, and is never visited by the plague.



Beyond the limits of the cultivated districts are several portions of the desert, which are worthy of notice. South of Alexandria are two parallel vallies called the "Basin of the Natron Lakes" and "the Bahr-bela-maie," or waterless river. The former contains a series of six lakes, the banks and waters of which are covered with crystals of salt and natron. The Bahr-bela-maie lies to the south-west of the basin, from which it is separated by a small ridge; it is about eight miles wide, and everywhere covered with sand. It is said to join Faïoum on the south, and the Mediterranean on the north-west, and is supposed to have once formed the bed of the Nile, or at least one of its branches; and to strengthen this conjecture petrified trunks of trees and fish-bones have been found beneath the surface. The vegetation of both valleys has a wild and dreary aspect; the palms are mere bushes and bear no fruit. The Natron valley is inhabited by Greek monks who have there fine convents. Further south are several oases or wahs scattered over the desert. Their physical character is pretty much the same, consisting of small tracts or valleys irrigated by springs, and producing dates, with several kinds of grain and fruits.

The general character of the eastern desert is that of a mountainous region, which, though generally barren and rocky, contains a number of wadies and ravines, fertilized by springs and clothed with vegetation. Mines of various metals, and quarries of porphyry and other valuable stones, are scattered among the mountains. A range of hills called Jebel Mokattam and Jebel Attaka, extends from Cairo to Suez; to the south of these are other ranges stretching nearly in the same direction, with intervening valleys; but at Jebel Tenesep, 15 miles south-east of Deir Bolos, the mountains diverge into the interior, veering south and south-west towards the Nile, and are succeeded near the sea by a range of primitive formation, which extends southward to Cosseir, at a distance of from 20 to 30 miles from the coast, the intervening space being occupied by low lime-stone and sand-stone hills. "Jebel Ghrarib," in the primitive range, about  $28^{\circ} 23'$  N. latitude, is estimated at nearly 6,000 feet above the level of the sea, and its lofty peaks are said to resemble the aiguilles of Chamouni. South of Cosseir the mountains continue to run parallel to the coast as far as Jebel Zabareh or Emerald hill, which is about eight hours' journey from the coast, and stretch further south-east to the ruins of Berenicé.

The "Isthmus of Suez" forms one of the most important features of Egypt. It consists of a tract of low lying land, composed of shell-limestone rocks mixed with strata of silicious limestone, and partly covered with sand or salt marshes. The surface is scarcely varied by an undulation, but in the middle of its breadth ridges of hills show their bare heads in the form of a series of large steps. It is skirted on the east, the south-east, and the south-west, by the mountains of Egypt and Arabia, and terminates almost in a point at the head of the Red Sea, between which and the Mediterranean is a series of salt lakes and dry hollows, interrupted only by strips of low ground. The breadth of the isthmus in this direction is about 75 miles. The surface generally declines towards the Mediterranean, the level of which is about 30 feet lower than the Gulf of Suez. There is a similar declination of 9 feet towards the Nile; but as the Nile rises 16 cubits during the inundations, its surface is then 9 feet higher than the Red Sea at high water. Besides these leading slopes, there is a particular declination in the middle of the isthmus. Directly north from Suez is a valley, which extends like a hollow trough for  $13\frac{1}{2}$  miles, terminating at the deep basin of the Bitter lakes, which is 54 feet below the level of the Red Sea, the waters

of which would enter and fill it, but for a little sandy isthmus three feet higher than the sea, which forms a complete bar to its progress northward up the valley. In the opposite direction the valley, called Wady Tomylat and Wady Sababyar, opens a passage for the waters of the Nile into the Bitter Lakes during its rise, so that it seems quite possible to form a navigable communication between the Nile and the Red Sea, through this natural channel. Accordingly we find, that so early as the reign of Sesostris, that prince actually formed a canal, which was several times renewed, and kept up even to the times of the Arab dominion.

The coast of Egypt is uniformly low, and so unvarying in its formation that there is great difficulty in making a safe approach to it. The land, when first seen, rises ahead like a long ridge of sand, presenting the appearance of a continued swell of the sea, or of a line faintly drawn on the horizon.

The Nile is the only river of Egypt; its general direction and character have been already described; and it only remains for us to show its beneficial influence on the country through which it flows. Without the periodical depositions of this river, the whole of Egypt would be a desert, and the fertility which now characterizes the moistened and alluviated portions of the country could not exist. The rise of the river, which is caused by the heavy annual rains within the tropics, commences about the summer solstice, attains its greatest height at the autumnal equinox, remains stationary for some days, and then gradually recedes till the winter solstice, when it is very low, though some water still remains in pools and in the large canals. The soil has been in the mean time covered with a fresh layer of mud, and at this latter period the lands are put under cultivation. The breadth of the inundation is comparatively small in Upper Egypt; but in Lower Egypt it overspreads great part of the Delta and the adjoining plains. The prosperity, however, of Egypt, depends very much on the river keeping a certain medium level during its floods, either extreme being pernicious, the one causing scarcity and famine, while the other overwhelms cities and villages, and spreads destruction wherever the superabundant waters are carried. It is estimated that a medium rise, or one sufficient to fertilize the whole country, is from 25 to 28 feet. The average current of the river is about 2,900 yards per hour, but it is considerably increased during the period of inundation, and the general depth at low water is about six feet. There is much danger in the river, occasioned by sudden squalls.

The artificial canals, which everywhere form so characteristic a feature in Egyptian topography, and which fertilize many extensive districts which would otherwise be as barren as the desert, will now require a short notice. At Farshout, in latitude  $26^{\circ} 12' N.$ , a canal named Bahr Joussef, Moyo-Souhaj, &c., before alluded to, issues from the west bank of the river, and runs parallel with it for 250 miles, to Benisouef, where one branch diverges towards Faioum, while another flows onward as far as the Delta. In some places it is several miles distant from the river, flowing, like its parent stream, along the top of a ridge formed by the mud of the inundations, leaving a space of low ground between them. Its breadth varies from 50 to 300 feet, and it has all the appearance of a natural river. The branch which flows into Faioum divides into numerous streams, which fertilize that district, and ultimately find their way into Lake Mœris, which has also been supposed to be an artificial work, completed for the double purpose of

preventing the low country from being damaged by the superabundant overflowing of the Nile, and of serving as a reservoir to supply water during the dry season. This, however, is unlikely, and the lake appears to be a natural basin, and as it is much lower than the surrounding level, it could not return its waters by the canals. The waters of this lake are slightly salt, and entirely unfit for drinking. It abounds in fish, and its fisheries yield a rent of 500 purse, or about \$40,000 annually to the government.

The only other existing canal which deserves particular notice is the "Canal of Mahmudiah," which affords a navigable communication between Alexandria and the Nile, about 40 miles; its mean depth being much above the level of the river, and its breadth averaging probably 200 feet. There is a sluice at each end to regulate the admission or escape of the water, but by no means for the passage of boats. The canal is in fact a large ditch, without science in its plan or skill in its execution, and is so crooked that the distance is increased about one-third, without the slightest necessity for deviation. Though originally constructed for the purpose of navigation, it likewise supplies Alexandria with water, and serves to irrigate the land on both sides. The canal was commenced in 1819, and during the first ten months no less than 23,000 of the laborers perished for want of food, combined with ill treatment, and were buried along the embankments.

The "Canal of Sesostris" exists only in name; but vestiges of it are still found in different parts of the valley, between Suez and the Nile, and it has been seriously proposed to restore it throughout. The "Canal of Cairo" leaves the river near Fostat, and flows directly through the city to the "Birket-el-Hadjee" or pilgrim's pool, so called from its being the place whence the great caravans for Mecca take their departure. Many other canals, for the purpose of irrigation, intersect the deltaic plains, and one traveller has counted so many as 6,000; but these channels, rapidly filling up by the annual deposits, retain considerably less water than formerly; and the natural "Birkets" or pools, increasing in extent in proportion as they become shallower, spread over the fertile fields, and diminish the cultivated land. Much of the water which should be retained in these reservoirs is thus lost by evaporation, and in the canals by infiltration, and the insufficiency of the banks; and hence the inhabitants of the villages can seldom command a supply of water for any length of time.—(*St. John's "Egypt and Mahomed Ali,"* II. 353.)

Besides the fresh water lakes already mentioned, there are several salt water lakes along the coast, as the Mareotis, Maudie, Etoko, Bourlos, and Menzaleh. "Lake Mareotis" is a large shallow lagoon to the south-east of Alexandria, studded with islands, and separated from the sea on its north-western side by a long ridge of sand hills. It is of great antiquity, but was dry for many centuries, till the sea was let into its bed by the British army in 1801. The lake "Maudie, or Aboukir," lies to the north-east of Mareotis, separated from it by a narrow strip of land. The "Lake of Etoko" is a long lagoon a little further east. The "Lake Bourlos" lies to the east of the Rosetta, a branch of the Nile; and the "Lake Menzaleh" lies to the east of Damietta, and is bounded on the north and north-east by a narrow strip of low land, which separates it from the Mediterranean. It communicates with that sea by two navigable channels; but the southern portion of the lake itself, to the extent of about one-third of its surface, is not navigable, and the remainder is very shallow. It measures about 56 miles in length, from north-west to south-east, with a breadth varying from about 12 to 30 miles. It contains several islands, and abounds with fish,

which afford employment and subsistence to a numerous class of rather savage fishermen.

Egypt is a very hot country—the nature of its own soil and the aridity of the surrounding districts conducing to that result. The plains at all seasons are scorching, but it sometimes happens from the prevalence of the north winds that the temperature is reduced to the freezing point. The winter temperature of Lower Egypt is from  $50^{\circ}$  to  $60^{\circ}$  in the shade, and in summer the mercury ranges from  $90^{\circ}$  to  $100^{\circ}$ . In the southern parts of Upper Egypt, however, the heat is about  $10^{\circ}$  higher. But though the temperature is high, the clearness of the atmosphere and the north winds prevent it from becoming oppressive. The winter nights in Lower Egypt are cold, and it is necessary at that season for the natives to go warmly clothed.

The wind is very regular from June to September, blowing almost without interruption from the north and north-east. The period of the decrease of the Nile is accompanied with intermitting winds, but still from the north. In winter the winds are changeable, but at that season the cloudless atmosphere gives free scope to the solar rays, and the vegetation becomes luxuriant. The atmosphere during the night is now foggy, and the dews heavy, while near the sea rain occasionally falls. At Cairo there are on an average four or five showers during the year, but in Upper Egypt only one or two. The approach of the vernal equinox changes the appearance of the country; the hot south wind then begins to blow, and continues at intervals during a period of 50 days, (hence called the khamseen,) commencing in April and lasting through May. During its continuance the atmosphere becomes troubled, sometimes acquiring a purple tinge; a dry burning heat prevails everywhere, and whirlwinds, like the blasts of a heated furnace, sweep over the country, forcing before them everything moveable, and filling every place with sand and dust. These winds, though they seldom cause the thermometer to rise above  $95^{\circ}$  in Lower, or  $105^{\circ}$  in Upper Egypt, are dreadfully oppressive, even to the natives. During the spring and summer the “simoon” blows occasionally, coming from the south-east, and carrying with it clouds of dust and sand. It is still more oppressive than the khamseen winds, but seldom lasts longer than a quarter of an hour or 20 minutes.

The season of the khamseen is the only time in which the atmosphere of Egypt is generally unhealthy, and it is then that the plague, the fatal scourge of the Levant, is most severe. The ophthalmia, however, another very common Egyptian disease, makes its greatest ravages during the inundations, a circumstance which proves that it is not entirely owing to the glare of the sun or to the heat of the khamseen winds.

Egypt contains within its limits all the cultivated vegetables of the old world. Authors have generally demarked two great classes: those which grow in the regions reached by the inundations, and those which belong to the more distant parts, and require artificial irrigation to forward their growth. In the first class are wheat, barley, beans, lentils, sesamum, mustard, flax, anise, saffron-wood, tobacco, and several species of grasses, &c. The cucurbitaceous plants, and also tobacco and lupins, generally cover the banks of the river as the water subsides. The plants produced in the irrigated land are chiefly durrah, which forms the common food of the people—its leaves are used for feeding cattle, and its stalks serve as fuel for the ovens; sugar-cane, indigo, cotton and pot-herbs. Faioum is distinguished for its roses; it also produces rice, but the best quality of this grain is raised in the swamps of Lower Egypt. Of fruit trees, the almond,

the walnut and the cherry are not found in Egypt, but citrons, lemons, oranges, bananas, &c., prosper abundantly, and the colocynth or bitter apple has become an article of considerable trade. The sycamore or Pharaoh's fig, much valued for its deep and broad shade, the carob, the jujube, the tamarind and other trees are cultivated, but none of these equal in number or importance the date-palm, which is cultivated everywhere. The olive and vine are not so common as formerly.

But all these vegetables are not found everywhere; they vary in different provinces, and some belong almost exclusively to particular districts. Clover is only found in Lower Egypt, and rice belongs to the Delta and the Oases, while cole-seed, gortum, poppies and lettuce are almost confined to Upper Egypt, where also the greatest quantity of durrah is cultivated. Date trees are most abundant in the north, while vines, figs, roses and olives are limited to Faioum, and the gardens contiguous to large towns. The mulberry is almost universally cultivated. Many of the ancient plants have disappeared, but one, celebrated through all ages, the "lotus," still remains. It is a species of water-lily, which after the inundations covers all the canals and pools with its broad round leaves, among which the flowers, like cups of bright white or azure blue, rest with inimitable grace on the surface of the water. The rose-lily of the Nile, or Egyptian bean, which is sculptured on the monuments, is not now found in the country. The papyrus still is found, and the colocasium is still cultivated for the sake of its large esculent roots. Many of the gardens of Egypt are beautiful in appearance, and as rich in their productions.

Among the plants that have lately been introduced, the bamboo, the yam, the caoutchouc, the ginger and the arrowroot have completely succeeded. The custard-apple also finds a congenial soil and climate. The cultivation of coffee and tea has also been tried, but without success, owing to the unsuitableness of the soil.

Though Egypt is so rich in cultivated plants, it is entirely destitute of forests. The banks of the rivers and canals sometimes present coppices of acacias and mimosas, and are also adorned with groves of rose-laurels, willows, saules-kalef, acacias, and other shrubs; and Faioum contains impenetrable thickets of cactus; but none of these furnish fire-wood, and all the fuel that is used in the country is brought from Caramania. The peasants burn cow dung, which they collect with an almost ludicrous assiduity.

The cultivable land of Egypt is never at rest:—every month has its flowers and every season its fruits. In January, lupin, dohchos and cummin are sown in Upper Egypt, while the wheat shoots into ear; and in Lower Egypt the beans and the flax are in flower. Towards the end of the month the orange, citron and pomegranate blossom, and sugar-cane, senna leaves and pulse are then cut. In February all the fields are green; rice is sown; the first barley crop is cut, and cucumbers and melons ripen. March is the season of blossom; corn sown in October and November is gathered, and the only trees not yet in leaf are the mulberry and beach. The first half of April is the time for gathering roses; nearly every sort of corn is cut down and sown at the same time; wheat is ripe, and trefoil yields a second crop. During May the reaping of the winter crop continues; cassia and hennah are in flower; and grapes, figs and carobs are gathered. In June, Upper Egypt has its sugar harvest, and the plants on the sandy grounds begin to wither and die. In July, rice, maize and canes are planted; flax and cotton pulled; grapes are ripe at Cairo; and there is now a third crop of trefoil. In August the palm trees and vines are loaded with ripe fruit, and the

melons are surcharged with water. Towards the end of September oranges, citrons, tamarinds and olives are gathered, and a second crop of rice is cut down. In this month also, but still more in October, all sorts of grain is sown; the grass grows tall enough to hide the cattle, and the acacias and other thorny shrubs are covered with odoriferous flowers. The sowing continues more or less into November, and before the end of the month the corn begins to spring; narcissuses, violets and colocasias flower on the dried lands, and the dates are gathered. December shakes the trees, and the foliage disappears; but the corn, the grass and the flowers, everywhere present the spectacle of a new spring.

The physical developments of Egypt neither favor the accumulation of wild animals, nor the multiplication of domestic stock. The want of meadows of course restrains the rearing of cattle. Horses, mules and camels, however, appear in full perfection, and there are great numbers of buffaloes. The Mamelukes used to keep a beautiful race of saddle horses, and great attention is still paid to this noble animal for cavalry use. In Lower Egypt there are sheep of the Barbary breed. Large beasts of prey find neither food nor cover, and hence, though the jackal and hyæna are common, the lion is but rarely seen. Crocodiles infest the Nile, and the ichneumon still exists in Upper Egypt. Jerboas, hares, foxes &c., are also found. The birds do not differ much from those of Europe; the famous ibis, according to Cuvier, is a sort of curlew, now called "abou-hannes." The Nile is said to contain some singular species of fish; and the *coluber-haje*, an animal employed in hieroglyphics as an emblem of Divine Providence, and the *coluber vipera*, the true viper of the ancients, are still found. Vermin abounds; flies by day and mosquitoes by night annoy the inhabitants, and detract much from the comfort which might otherwise be derived from so genial a climate. Every house swarms with bed-bugs, and lice are not always to be avoided. In the cooler weather flies are excessively numerous.

The Copts are the most ancient, but the Turks are the dominant people in Egypt. But there are a number of other races, and the whole inhabitants of Egypt may be classed as Arabs, Copts, Turks, Jews, Greeks, Armenians, Franks\* and other foreigners. The Arabs are very numerous, and are scattered over the whole country. The peasantry, called "fellahs," seem to be of the same race. They are represented as an ignorant, credulous, profligate race. Both in town and country, however, the Arabs are scrupulous observers of the external rites of their religion. They are proficient as merchants and mechanics, and those in the country parts are the great agricultural producers.

The Copts, though some are found in Cairo, chiefly reside in Upper Egypt, where there are villages exclusively inhabited by them. They are distinguished from the Arabs by a darker complexion, flat foreheads, and hair partaking of the woolly character; and some minor peculiarities. They still retain their ancient language in their religious worship, but in common conversation they use the Arabic dialect. In the villages and throughout the country the Copts are devoted, like the fellahs, to agriculture, though many of them follow trades. Under the Mamelukes they were the only educated class. The women are kept in a servile subjection by their lords, nor do the husband and wife ever sit at the same table. Girls are often married before the age of puberty. The Copts are undoubtedly de-

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\* "Franks" is a general name given to all Europeans.

scendants of the ancient Egyptians, but are not an unmixed race, their ancestors in the earlier ages of Christianity having intermarried with Greeks, Nubians, Abyssinians and other foreigners. The people, says Malte Brun, who bear the greatest resemblance at present to the ancient Egyptians, are the Noobebs (or genuine Nubians;) and next to these the Abyssinians and the Copts, who are, notwithstanding, much unlike each other.

The Turks, though few in number, are the ruling class. They are highly accomplished in literature and science. The splendid Mamelukes who so lately ruled and tyrannized over Egypt, are completely extirpated. The Jews are now fewer than formerly. They are in general poor, and few even enjoy a competency, though every civil disability has been removed from their condition. They are averse, as elsewhere, to productive industry as mechanics or farmers, and are chiefly employed as money changers and petty merchants. At Alexandria, however, they monopolize the trade of butchers. The Franks in Egypt consist principally of French, English, Germans, Italians and Poles. Many are engaged in trade, and not a few are employed in the military and civil service of the Pasha. Other foreigners, from all parts of Western Asia and Northern Africa, are likewise found at Cairo. The inhabitants of the deserts are Bedouin Arabs of various tribes; these profess to be independent of the Pasha.

The numbers of the several classes which compose the population of Egypt are nearly as follows: Arabs, 1,750,000; Copts, 150,000; Turks, 10,000; Syrians, 5,000; Greeks, 5,000; Armenians, 2,000; and Jews, 5,000; total, 1,927,000. The Franks and other foreigners, and the several wandering tribes which inhabit the deserts, will perhaps carry this amount up to 2,500,000, which may be taken as the approximate population.

The government of Egypt is a despotic monarchy, vested hereditarily in the person of Mahommed Ali, a Turkish Pasha, who, though he acknowledges the supremacy of the Padishah, is nevertheless quite independent. Under the Pasha the government of Upper Egypt is administered by a "Kiaya-bey;" and each sub-province has its "namoor" or sheriff; under the namoors are "nazers" or inspectors of districts, whose jurisdiction extends over seven "cachefs" or governors of towns and their environs, and under each of these again are seven or eight "haymakams," according to the number of villages in their districts. The native chiefs are all subordinate to the Turkish officers. These officers are all paid from the government treasury.

The power of the Pasha is maintained by a large standing army, disciplined by Europeans, and under which Egypt has within the last few years been raised to a high rank as a military power. It is composed of all classes. Not content, however, with his superiority by land, the Pasha has also equipped a numerous and powerful fleet. He has likewise established a number of schools and colleges, which promise to diffuse civilization over his dominions, and he has forced upon his people industry, and thereby much improved the condition of his subjects. There can be no doubt that many of his actions have been very despotic, but he has effected wonders in regenerating his country. Mahommed Ali, indeed, is perhaps the most extraordinary political adventurer that the modern East has produced. He is a native of Cavalla, in Albania, and came to Egypt with the Turkish army in 1801, in the capacity of "bim-bashee" or colonel. By daring and intrigue he got possession of the vice-royalty, and confirmed his pretensions by the massacre of the Mamelukes. At a subsequent date the Padishah is

said to have made repeated attempts to get rid of his too powerful subject by secret means, but these were always foiled by the wary pasha. At last their mutual jealousy led to open war, and the imperial troops were effectually driven back, and were obliged to evacuate not only Egypt, but Syria and Asia Minor. This war, which broke out in 1830, was terminated the following year by a peace, which left the Pasha master of Syria and Adana, in addition to his former possessions; but in 1840 he was compelled by the British, in conjunction with the Padishah, to abandon Syria, and the European powers have since agreed to secure to him and his family the hereditary possession of Egypt and its dependencies under the supremacy of the Porte. The Pasha is now a very old man, and his death is daily expected. In that event the kingdom descends to his son Ibrahim Pasha, who is said to be a man of as great talent and energy as his father.

The Pasha is the great land owner of the kingdom, and his revenues consist principally of rents, but as no accounts are published, the amount of his revenue is unknown. It has, however, been estimated at \$25,000,000. The army, in 1839, consisted of 159,300 men, of whom 112,800 were infantry; 13,180 cavalry; 25,820 artillery; 5,000 Bedouins; 1,000 Albanians; and 1,500 Moghrebs and other irregulars. The number of ships of war was 10, one of which is a three decker carrying 136 guns; six frigates, four corvettes and eight brigs. The police of the towns is under the charge of the Bache Aga, and in each quarter is an officer called "Sheikh-el-tumn," who acts as a sort of a justice of the peace or commissioner of police. The public works are presided over by special officers, and the greatest activity prevails in every department.

The administration of justice is more prompt and less capricious in Egypt than in most Mahomedan countries. All courts are open to the public. The highest court is the "Mekermeh," which exercises a sort of religious jurisdiction. It is the court of final appeal, and its law is the Koran. The Mekermeh is also the court for the registration of landed or other real property, and no legal transfer can take place without its authority.

Productive industry has developed itself proportionately with the increased civilization of this interesting country. Circumstances have rather forced than fostered it. Agriculture, however, is yet in a very low condition, and the peasants, or fellahs, in a state of wretchedness. They have neither proper implements, nor means of improving their position. But the productive powers of the ever-renewed soil are incalculable: wherever the water spreads, there springs up a rapid and beautiful vegetation. The seed is sown and watered, and scarcely any other care is required for the ordinary produce. Even in spots near the desert, which seem to consist merely of sand, irrigation brings rapidly forth a variety of green herbs and plants, and accordingly the most important branch of Egyptian agriculture, and that which requires the chief consideration, is irrigation. The principal articles of produce are wheat, beans, lentils, barley, maize, durrah, peas, lupins, sugar, cotton, flax, saffron, tobacco, silk, and linseed. But of all these cotton is incomparably the most important; and is an article, the introduction of which is wholly due to the Pasha. The average produce fluctuates between 150,000 and 200,000 bales, each of 200 lbs. weight. Raw silks are also an object of some attention: great numbers of mulberry-trees have been planted, and the cultivation is still extending.

Not content with improving and extending the cultivation of the soil, the Pasha has also introduced a great number of manufactures. He has erected mills and machinery for spinning and weaving cotton, and pre-

\* Mahomed Ali and his son Ibrahim have both died since the above was written; the present ruler is Abbas Pasha. Ibrahim died 10th Nov., 1848, and Mahomed 2d Aug., 1849.



paring various other articles; but as no one else has any interest in these but himself, it is not likely that his operations can prosper. He has made himself at once, the great landholder, manufacturer, merchant, and general monopolist of the trade of the country: every thing is done at his instigation, and for his profit alone, and consequently everything is ill-done; and were he out of the way, says Dr. Bowring,\* all his manufacturing projects will probably fall to the ground.

The trade of Egypt consists chiefly in the export of her raw produce, particularly cotton, and of the articles brought from the interior by caravan; but the principal article is negro and Abyssinian slaves, who are brought in great numbers to the slave-markets of Egypt, whence all the neighboring provinces of the Turkish Empire are supplied. The principal articles of import at Alexandria are wood, tarbouches, nails, spices, iron, pitch, cloth, cochineal, paper, and lead; but the extreme poverty of the people, and the circumstance of the great mass of them wearing no clothes at all, are such obstacles to the extension of the import trade, as only a complete change in the method of regulating their industry and rewarding their labors will remove.

The Mahmudiah Canal and the Nile are the most active, and indeed the only channels of communication for the principal markets of Egypt. Boulak, the port of Cairo, and Atfieh, where the canal joins the Nile, are the principal places of shipment and landing. Boats convey the goods to Upper Egypt, and the navigation of the river employs a great number of natives, who are generally strong, muscular men. The number of boats on the river is about 4,500. There are also large boats, called jerns, which sail between Alexandria and Rosetta, and these are also employed in conveying merchandize from Damietta to the outside, to be thence shipped in vessels lying out at sea. Sometimes these jerns go as far as Cyprus and Syria, but they are often lost.

The ordinary mode of travelling through the deserts is by means of camels along unformed paths. The journey between Cairo and Suez, a distance of eighty miles, can be performed in two days. Sometimes travellers prefer to cross the desert, between Corseir on the Red Sea and Kenneh on the Nile. Ladies perform the journey in tachtruans, a sort of palanquins carried by camels. A railroad has long been projected between Cairo and Suez; but it is improbable, though the engineering difficulties are but few, that it will ever be completed, as the traffic could never pay its expenses. A regular post and a line of telegraphs are established between the two places. A regular post is also established from one end of Egypt to the other; but on especial occasions messengers are despatched on dromedaries, which travel seven or eight miles an hour.

In Egypt education is very backward, although the present government make it a primary consideration in their policy. A general system has been established, consisting of primary, secondary, and special schools, through the whole of which pupils are compelled to pass. The primary schools are spread over the provinces, according to their population, and each is under the charge of a director and two teachers. The secondary schools receive the pupils from the primary schools. The courses of education in these are elementary, and embrace every department of literature and science. Each of the secondary schools has one director, one sub-di-

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\* Bowring's Report on Egypt and Candia. 1840.

rector, three prefects of study, 12 masters, 12 professors of the Arabic, Turkish, and Persian languages; one professor of history, one of geography, three drawing-masters, two *sulus* and two *rika* professors. The courses of study are arranged by the Council of Public Instruction. The schools are subjected to military discipline, and the scholars are lodged in barracks. The special schools are for effecting translations from Turkish, Arabic, and French. The Polytechnique provides officers for the military and public works. There are, besides, medical and other schools. The whole system is under a Council, and education is compulsory—each district having to send its ratio of children—who are maintained, as well as educated, at the public expense. These schools are no doubt an improvement on those which preceded them; but the greatest drawback to their usefulness is the want of qualified teachers; and there are many prejudices to overcome before they can act efficiently on the public mind. Among the Mussulmans learning is little valued, except so far as it enables them to read the Koran; and the spirit of Khalif Omar is still prevalent among the learned, from whose lips is sometimes heard language similar to that recorded of the Saracen conqueror. “The Koran,” say they, “contains everything, and all that is out of the Koran is worthless.”

The public works of Egypt are numberless, and comprehend establishments of every kind—as arsenals, manufactories, founderies, work-shops, schools, hospitals, mosques, palaces, barracks, canals, locks, terracings, drainings, telegraphs, stables, sheep-folds, &c. But one of the greatest works the pasha has contemplated is the barring up the waters of the Nile by huge dams with sluices, near the fork of the delta. This, if ever completed, will be the means of irrigating 5,000,000 acres, without the aid of machinery. The estimates of this undertaking have been made, but could be of no general interest. It has been estimated that the work would require five years for its completion, and that the expense would be about \$7,000,000. Besides the great canal from the Nile to Alexandria, which serves the double purpose of navigation and irrigation, many other canals have been recently constructed. In the delta is the canal of Tintah, which preserves the waters throughout the year; the canal of Bouhyeh, on the Damietta branch; and that of Bahyreh, on the Rosetta branch. The pasha has also constructed 33,000 machines for raising water, making the total number in Lower Egypt now exceed 50,000.

Egypt possesses many charms for the traveller, and in respect of antiquities bears the palm above every other country. The celebrated “pyramids” demand our first attention. The principal of these, three in number, are situated on a platform of a rock, about 100 feet above the level of the Egyptian plain, at the distance of five miles south-east of Geeza. The largest, called the Pyramid of Cheops, occupies a base of 767 feet square, and rises to the height of 479 feet. It is built, like the others, of large blocks of stone, which form so many gigantic steps, (about 200 in number,) to the top, where there is a small platform, affording an extensive view over a landscape of most extraordinary features. To the south, scattered in irregular groups, are the pyramids of Sakkarah, Abousir, and Dashour, glittering in the sun like enormous tents, and appearing, from their number and the confusion of their arrangement, to extend to an unknown distance into the desert. On the west is the wilderness of Lybia. In the foreground the sands swell into hillocks, resembling the kernels of new pyramids. To the north and east the landscape presents a striking contrast to the savage scenery of the other sides; the valley of the Nile, the corn-fields

green foliage, scattered villages, and the glistening surfaces of the river and lakes, give an extraordinary freshness and beauty to the scene. Beyond are the white buildings of Cairo, Boulak, and Rondah, backed by the lofty range of the Mokattam Hills, reflecting the bright rays of the sun; or, when the Nile is in flood, this blooming valley seems like a wide sea, with a few scattered islands and date-trees peering above its smooth surface, with Cairo and the Mokattam Hills forming its farthest shore. The pyramid of Cheops has long since been opened, and contains a small chamber, with a hollow sarcophagus, known as Pharaoh's tomb. Several other apartments and winding passages have lately been discovered in its recesses, and its whole internal structures have been revealed. The next adjoining pyramid is that of Cephrenes, opened by Belzoni, who discovered that he had been anticipated by Arab investigators several centuries earlier; but he still found in a sarcophagus some bones, which are believed to be those of a cow or an ox. It is about 456 feet high. The next is the pyramid of Mycerinus, and numerous pyramids are found further south, for upwards of 20 miles, at Abousir, Sakkarah, and Dashour; also in other parts of the country, and even in Nubia; but for what purpose, by whom, or when, such stupendous fabrics were erected, is quite unknown. About 300 paces from the second pyramid is the gigantic statue of the Sphinx. It was formerly covered to the neck with sand, but that having been cleared away, the length of the complete statue was found to be 125 feet from the fore part of the tail, with the paws projecting 50 feet forward. The breast, shoulders, and neck, are those of a human being—the body is that of a lion. The head-dress resembles an old-fashioned wig; the ears project considerably; the nose is broken; the face seems to have been painted red; the features are Nubian or ancient Egyptian, and the expression is peculiarly mild and benign. It has again been covered up by the sands to the neck.

Thebes, the city of the "hundred gates," the original capital of Egypt, now exists only in ruins, which extend for many miles along the river on both sides. The period of its greatest splendor appears to have been between the 18th and 13th centuries before Christ. At that time it had a circuit of 30 miles, and contained many temples and palaces filled with immense wealth. Laid waste by Ptolemy Philadelphus, this ancient city never rose again. Among the ruins on the left bank of the Nile, is an immense hippodrome; the enormous palace of Rhamses-Meiamoun; the Amenophion, the ruins of which extend 1,800 feet in length, and contain more than 18 colossi, the smallest of which is 20 feet high; and near the bank of the river are two colossi, 61 feet high. The most northerly of the two is the celebrated Memnon, of which the Greek writers report that its lips uttered musical sounds, when struck by the rays of the rising sun. The head of the younger Memnon, weighing 12 tons, was carried off by Belzoni, and presented to the British Museum. Along the right bank of the Nile we find the remains of an immense palace, built by Amenophis-Memnon, of the 18 dynasty, and Sesostris the Great. In front of it were two obelisks of 72 and 75 feet high, each formed of a single block of rose-colored granite, and four colossal statues of the same material. But it is at Karnac that the magnificence of the ancient kings is exhibited. The grandeur of the buildings seems almost superhuman; so immense, so elaborate are their proportions and finish. Columns, obelisks, statues, courts, domes, there lie in confusion; and the greatest works of man—statues of kings, and sculptural pictures of their lives—are there mingling in the dust of centuries. On the left bank of the Nile are the tombs of the an-

cient kings, cut in the calcareous rock, at different levels, in a dry valley now called Biban-el-Moluk. They are all of extraordinary splendor. Several of these royal tombs contain on their walls numerous inscriptions, made by travellers of all ages, from the days of Pharaoh, the Persians, the Greeks, and the Romans, to the travellers of the middle ages and those of our own times. The "Necropolis" occupies an immense extent of ground, on the left bank of the Nile, where are found tombs of all the kinds in use among the ancient Egyptians. It is in those tombs that the finest mummies and the most ancient papyri are found. The village of Gournah partly consists of this Necropolis, and the Arabs live in the very tombs, *whose former inhabitants they use for fuel!* and the trade in antiquities has been, since 1817, the only occupation of this ferocious and brutalized tribe.

The place once occupied by Memphis, the second capital in point of antiquity, is now represented by the villages of Memf, Mitrahineh, and Bedreshein, not far from the great pyramids. Almost every part of it has disappeared. Its finest buildings were destroyed by Cambyses, and its ruin completed in the 7th century, A. D. Near Aboussir are the "catacombs" of birds, so famous in the narratives of travellers: they consist of extensive corridors, filled from top to bottom with little jars, containing the mummies of these animals. Sais, the capital of the last of the native kings before the Persian conquest, is now represented by a miserable village. All that now remains of its ancient splendor is two colossal mounds. Mataria, a small village six miles north-east of Cairo, contains the remains of the ancient "Heliopolis," so called on account of its magnificent temples of the sun. It was one of the largest cities of ancient Egypt; but it was early despoiled, and its finest ornaments carried off to Greece and Rome, and more lately to adorn Constantinople. The ruins of the temple still exist, with the remains of a Sphinx, mentioned by Strabo, and a fine obelisk. The remains of a thousand cities and villages might be described; magnificent ruins covered in the sand, deserted buildings, where splendid apartments are still left entire, adorned with hieroglyphics and paintings; remains of temples; walls, forts, and other works of the Ptolemies and Pharaohs, and all the adjuncts of a high civilization; but we cannot pursue this subject further. The subject, indeed, is exhaustless; and to do so would lead us away from the design of the work before us.

The contemplation of these remains of antiquity, scattered throughout Egypt, carries us back to a period of which history furnishes us with no other records than those derived from the monuments themselves. The temples, the palaces and the pyramids mark the spot where civilization began. The ruins of Egypt are in fact so many historical records, and the paintings on their walls tell of the wars and triumphs of the Egyptian sovereigns; and they are highly interesting from the insight which they afford into the steps by which men were led to the use of a written language. The archæologist, indeed, deciphers from these relics not only the history of their civilization, but also a glowing account of all the minutiae of their political, religious and domestic economy; and finds in them a key to a mysterious and forgotten people.

Modern Egypt is divided into three grand districts, which have reference, however, more to the physical nature of the country than its political administration. These are, Lower, Middle and Upper Egypt. For administrative purposes, however, Egypt is divided into a number of provinces, which may be thus arranged:

<i>Provinces.</i>		<i>Chief Cities.</i>
CAIRO.....	In the BAHARI, or Lower Egypt.	CAIRO, Boulak, Suez.
KELYOUB.....		Kelyoub, Shoubra.
BELBEYS.....		Belbeys.
SHIBEH.....		Shibeh Tel-bastan.
MET-CAMAR.....		Mit-Camar.
MANSOURAH.....		Mansourah, Tmay-el-emdid.
DAMIETTA.....		Damietta, Menzaleh.
MENHALLET-EL-KEBIR.....		Menhallet-el-Kebir.
TANTAH.....		Tantah, Zefi.
MELYG.....		Meiyg, Shybyn-el-kûm.
MENOUF.....		Menouf.
NEGYLEH.....		Negyleh, Terraneh, Wardan.
FOUAH.....		Fouah, Rosetta, Deirout.
DAMANHOUR.....	In the VOSTANI, or Middle Egypt.	Damanhour, Rahmanieh.
ALEXANDRIA.....		Alexandria, Aboukir, El Keyt.
JIZEH, OR GEEZA.....		Jyzeh, Mitrahineh.
ATFIEH.....		Atfieh.
BENISOUEF.....		Benisouef, Boush, Feshn.
FAIOUM.....		Medinet-el-Faioum.
MINIEH.....		Minieh-ibn-khasim.
MONFALOUT.....		Monfalout, Sanabou.
SIOUT.....	In the SAID, or Upper Egypt.	Siout, Aboulig, Sadfeh.
GIRGEH.....		Girgeh, Hon, Kau.
KENNEH.....		Kennet, Cous, Keft, Erment
ESNEH.....		Esneh, Edfou, Assouan.

The only cities of Egypt that will require notice are Cairo, Alexandria, and some few others, though there are many others, famous in several instances, the description of which might be interesting to the reader.

KAHEIRAH or Misr-el-Kaherah, (the GRAND CAIRO of the Franks,) the capital of Egypt and largest city of Africa, is situated on a sandy plain about half a mile from the east bank of the Nile, in 30° N. latitude, about 25 miles above the point of the Delta. Seen from a distance on the west it is beautiful, and appears truly like a metropolis. Skirted by groves and gardens, its palace and citadel, and mosques and towers, blending with the pure sky, look as so many aerial edifices resting on a green base. Viewed on the other side from the citadel, Cairo appears a large crowded city, with grey, flat-roofed houses, and 130 minarets or mosques peering above the houses and trees. The city forms a parallelogram about two miles in length and one in breadth, surrounded with stone walls which are pierced by a number of fine gates; and a canal runs through the centre of the city which is filled with water during the inundation, but with green mud, emitting pestilential miasma, in the low season. The streets are narrow, winding and unpaved. The city is divided into 53 districts or wards, several of which are distinguished by their peculiar population, as the Jews', the Copts', the Greek and the Frank quarter. There are, however, several splendid squares, surrounded by magnificent buildings. The mosques are everywhere elegant, covered with arabesque and adorned with rich and graceful minarets. Four of these are particularly distinguished: that of "Touloun," a vast work of the ninth century, considered to be the finest Arab monument in Egypt, though now half ruined; the mosque of "El-Hakim;" that of "El-Azhar," with a magnificent dome and college attached to it, where the most celebrated doctors of Islam are educated; and the mosque of "Sultan Hassan," the most remarkable for the size and height of its dome and of its two minarets, for the variety of its marble, and for its arabesque ornaments wrought in hard stone, wood and bronze. The

citadel is located on the east side of the city on a spur of the Mokattam, which overlooks it and renders it incapable of defence. It contains a palace of the pasha, which is a magnificent building, and a new mosque, which is the finest in Cairo. The city is supposed to contain 36,000 inhabited houses, and about 250,000 inhabitants. There are 31 public baths, 1,200 coffee-houses, and several fine bazaars. Without the walls on the east are the tombs of the Mameluke kings, a dynasty of Circassians, who reigned from 1382 to 1517, when Egypt was added to the Turkish empire. Attached to each is a handsome mosque, schools and dwelling houses. Within a few years a good European library has been formed at Cairo, which is open to all strangers. Cairo was founded by Goher, a general of El-Moez, the first of the Fatemite Khalifs of Egypt, in A. D. 969, and four years afterwards it became the capital. About a mile from the city, in a fine park, is the splendid hospital and medical school of "Casser-eb-Ein." In the vicinity are FOSRAT or Old Cairo, on the eastern bank three miles south; BOULAK on the same bank north-west; the port of Cairo, containing a custom-house, bazaar, baths, printing-house, silk manufactories, &c., and 18,000 inhabitants. Opposite to Gyzeh is the small island of Rhoda, covered with fine gardens and containing at its southern point the famous "Nilometer," which is a graduated pillar in a well, showing the height of the annual inundation.

ISKANDERYEH, or ALEXANDRIA, is situated at the north-west corner of Egypt, on the Mediterranean shore, in  $31^{\circ} 13'$  N. latitude, and  $29^{\circ} 53'$  E. longitude. The modern town occupies a neck of land which joins the island of Pharos to the continent. At the commencement of the present century Alexandria was a miserable village, but is now the naval station of the Pacha, and a great emporium of the trade of Egypt with Europe. The population amounts to 60,000 or 80,000, composed of every nation under heaven. The island of Pharos extends east and west on the north side of the city, and is bordered with reefs, especially on the west side. At its northern extremity is the castle, a large, square, lofty building, surmounted by a minaret displaying a light, occupying probably the site of the ancient Pharos, one of the seven wonders of the world. The castle has been strongly fortified, and occupies a small island joined to the larger one by an artificial dyke. This island and the isthmus, occupied by the city, forms two ports; the old port on the west and the new port on the east. The old port is at the end of an extensive roadstead, the entrance to which lies through a chain of rocks which stretches from Cape Marabout to the western end of the island. There are three channels into the road, the deepest of which will admit frigates. The port itself is sheltered from winds blowing between north-east and south-west, by the high coast of the island, and the anchorage is good. The new port has also a line of rocks across its entrance, and is more exposed and in some parts very shallow. Fifteen miles north-east of the city are the island, castle and bay of Aboukir, so renowned for the battle of the Nile, 1st August 1798, and the battle of Aboukir, 21st March, 1801. The ruins of the ancient city, founded by Alexander the Great, 322 B. C., lie to the south. It is now a shapeless mass of ruins, and interesting only to the historical antiquary. It contains, however, two granite obelisks, still very entire, which are commonly called Cleopatra's Needles. One only of these is now standing, which, including the pedestal, is 79 feet high. The ancient churches, the baths, excavations, necropolis, &c., are pointed out to the curious, but really little remains to bespeak it the site of a large and magnificent city.

The only other towns in Lower Egypt deserving notice are, Rosetta,

Damietta, Menhallet, Tantah, Semenhoud, Mansourah, El-Arish and Suez. These in themselves, however, are of little consequence, and all the importance they have attached to them results from their locations as points of traffic or halting-places for the Moslem pilgrims to and from Mecca. They are generally respectable towns, varying in population from 4,000 to 17,000 or 20,000. The only towns of modern importance in Upper and Middle Egypt are, Atfieh, Benisouef, Medinet-el-Faïoum, Minieh, Ashmounein, Es-Siout, Akhmim, Girgeh, Kenneh, Esneh, Edfou, Assouan and Cosseir. None of these, however, need detain us long. **ATFIEH**, a town of 4,000 inhabitants, stands on the right bank of the Nile, in latitude  $29^{\circ} 28' N.$ , and is the capital of a province. **BENISOUF** contains several mosques, caravansaries, and is in general a handsome town. It is a great mart for the neighboring thickly peopled country. **MEDINET**, the chief town of Faïoum, is a large and populous city, and occupies the site of the ancient Arsinoë. **MINIEH**, on the left bank of the Nile,  $28^{\circ} 8' N.$  latitude, "contains several mosques, straight clean streets, and rather neat shops, and appears to be more opulent and populous than any of the towns further down the river." (*S. John*, i. 251.) Mr. Webster, however, says that "the *village* is small, with an immense number of tombs, covering many times the space itself occupies." **ES-SIOUT**, the capital of Upper Egypt, about a mile and a half from the left bank of the Nile,  $27^{\circ} 9' N.$  latitude, is a place of considerable extent, nearly circular, and surrounded with spacious gardens in the midst of sand hills. It carries on a trade in linen cloths, earthenware, natron and opium. Population from 12,000 to 15,000. **AKHMIM**, 30 miles south, is a manufacturing town of 10,000 or 12,000 inhabitants, and contains the ruins of a temple and catacombs. **GIRGEH**, the old capital of Upper Egypt, is still a considerable place, and contains mosques, minarets, and a number of other fine buildings. The city stands in the midst of a very fertile country, and being surrounded by groves of date trees, has an aspect of exquisite beauty. **KENNEH**, on the right of the Nile, in  $26^{\circ} 10' N.$  latitude, is famous for its manufacture of pottery, called "bardaks," made of porous clay, and in great request all over Egypt as water-coolers. It is also a depôt of commerce and station for pilgrims. **ESNEH**, the last great town that occurs in ascending the river on its left bank, in  $25^{\circ} 18' N.$  latitude, is a trading place and rendezvous of the Caravans of Dar-Fur and Sennaar. It manufactures cotton, pottery and shawls, and is famous for its great camel market or fair. It occupies the site of the ancient Latopolis. **EDFOU** is a small town of 2,000 inhabitants. **ASSOUAN** has considerable trade. **COSSEIR** is a port on the Red Sea and has a good trade, though the harbor is small and the anchorage none of the best. Cosseir is 119 miles from the Nile at Kenneh. The road passes over a perfectly level tract, passable by carriages. It is situated in  $26^{\circ} 6' 59'' N.$  latitude, and  $34^{\circ} 23' 30'' E.$  longitude, and between the two places there are eight wells.

The history of Egypt is intimately connected with that of the whole ancient world. It was formerly the seat of learning and the sciences; and to its famous schools Greece and Rome are indebted for much of their literature. It has undergone many revolutions, and been possessed by almost every great empire. The Persians, the Arabs, the Greeks, and the Romans, have successively held it; and in latter times it has succumbed to the power of the Moslem. Egypt of ancient times, indeed, has passed away, and its present condition contrasts strongly with its former magnificence; and its 8,000,000 of inhabitants have dwindled down to one-fourth

that number, and its proper natives number but a mere fraction. Its splendor is recognized only in its ruins. Yet it is, even in its present abasement, by no means an insignificant state: its condition, social and political, has much improved of late years, and many institutions which tend to foster a progressive civilization, are again being perfected. A brief history of such a country cannot but be acceptable.

The origin of the Egyptian nation, says M'Culloch, and the history of their native princes, are involved in the greatest obscurity and uncertainty. This much, however, is established beyond the possibility of doubt—that the Egyptians had attained to great wealth and civilization, and had established a regular, well-organized, and (if I may estimate it at its results) wisely-contrived government, while the greatest number of the surrounding nations were involved in the grossest barbarism. At length, however, Cambyses, king of Persia, added Egypt to his other provinces. It continued attached to Persia for 193 years, though often in open rebellion to its conquerors. Alexander the Great had little difficulty in effecting its conquest; and it has been inferred from his foundation of Alexandria, which soon became the centre of an extensive commerce, that he intended to establish in it the seat of the government of his vast empire. On the death of Alexander, Ptolemy, son of Lagus, became master of the country. Under this able prince and his immediate successors, Egypt recovered the greatest portion of its ancient prosperity, and was for three centuries the favored seat of commerce, art, and science.

The feebleness and indolence of the last sovereigns of the Macedonian dynasty facilitated the conquest of Egypt by the Romans: Augustus possessed himself of it after a struggle of some duration, and for the next 666 years it belonged to the Roman and Greek empires, constituted their most valuable province, and was for a lengthened period the granary, as it were, of Rome. In 640 Egypt submitted to the victorious Amrou, general of the Khalif Omer, under whose successors it continued until 771, when the Turcomans expelled the Khalifs. These again were in their turn expelled, in 1259, by the Mamelukes. The latter raised to the throne one of their own chiefs, with the title of Sultan; and this new dynasty reigned over Egypt till 1517, when the Mamelukes were totally defeated, and the last of their sultans put to death by the Turkish sultan, Selim. The conqueror did not, however, entirely suppress the Mameluke government, but merely reconstructed it on a new basis, and placed at its head a pasha appointed by him, self, who presided over a council of 24 Mameluke beys or chiefs. So long as the Ottoman sultans preserved their original power and authority, this form of government, though about the worst that could have been devised, had the interests of the country been ever so little attended to, answered their purpose of preserving Egypt in dependence, and of drawing from it supplies of men and money; but the power of the pashas declined with that of their masters; and latterly the whole executive authority centered in the beys, who, except upon rare occasions, paid little more than a nominal deference to the orders of the Sultan.

This state of things continued till 1798, when a French army, commanded by Napoleon, landed in Egypt. The Mameluke force having been annihilated or dispersed in a series of engagements with the French, the latter succeeded in subjugating the country. Napoleon having returned to France, the French in Egypt were attacked, in 1801, by a British army, by which they were defeated, and obliged to enter into a convention for the vacuation of the country. The British having not long after evacuated



Egypt, it relapsed into its former state of anarchy and barbarism, from which it was at last rescued by the good fortune and ability of Mahomed Ali, the late pasha, whose history is given in a former paragraph, and whose deeds are of too recent date to require recapitulation in the present connection. In 1830 he attained supreme power, and subsequently added to his dominions, Syria, and Mecca and Yemen, in Arabia, and other extensive provinces; but was compelled in 1840, by the interference of the great powers of Europe, to confine his permanent dominion to Egypt and its natural dependencies.

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### NUBIA.

NUBIA lies immediately south of Egypt, and extends to the northern frontier of Abyssinia, and eastward to the Red Sea. Nubia never formed a separate political division, but has, on the contrary, been divided among a great number of tribes, of different lineage, and contained in its limits several cotemporaneous independent states; of late years, however, it has all been subjected to the dominion of the Pasha of Egypt, and garrisoned by his troops. Strictly speaking, however, it is only the northern part of this region that is called Nubia, the more southerly districts, above Wady Halfa, were formerly known as the Kingdom of Sennaar, and are now called by the Turks, "Bilad-es-Soudan," or the country of the Blacks, a name, however, which they extend as far west as Bornou, including many countries not subject to the Pasha. Area, 360,000 square miles.

The greater part of the country consists of frightful deserts, and it is only on the borders of the Nile, and the several tributaries of that river, and along the coast of the Red Sea, that cultivation is possible. That which is called the Desert of Nubia extends from the east of the Nile, from Assouan to Gooz. It is a region of deep sands and sharp stones, but contains hills rising sometimes 1,000 feet, and is interspersed with wadies or valleys, that afford a supply of water, and support some trees, shrubs, and grass. In several places the ground is covered with salt, and studded with masses of granite, jasper, and marble. Now and then occurs a grove of stunted acacias, or tufts of colocynth and senna; and the savage inhabitants are constantly ambushed, waiting for the unwary traveller. The western desert, less arid and extensive, is called Bahionda. Between these two wildernesses lies the valley of the Nile, which, though here deprived of the advantages of the inundations, contains, nevertheless, some districts, and more particularly islands, where a high degree of fertility rewards the industry of those who raise by artificial means the waters to irrigate the fields. The southern parts of the country watered by the Tacazze, the Azrek, and the Abiad, presents a very different appearance. Immense savannahs, wide boundless forests of gigantic grass, and thickets of mimosas, are the retreat of lions, tigers, and hyænas. Further south the plains are bordered by mountains of picturesque forms, but low and isolated on the immense savannahs.

The climate is very hot, and during a great part of the year the country is burned up with intolerable heat. The thermometer sometimes reaches 119° Fahr. in the shade. The rainy season lasts from June to September,

covering the southern country with verdure. The northern limit, however, of the tropical rains is about  $18^{\circ}$  N. latitude, and the tract of country between that and Thebes is said to be the driest on the globe, and probably one of the hottest. The productions of the country are not in any great variety. The durrah and the bammia are the principal sorts of grain, though wheat and millet are cultivated. Two sorts of senna are exported; but the sugar-cane, which abounds along the Nile, is not turned to any account. The ebony tree predominates in the forests, and the acacia vera, and the mimosa-*nilotica*, extend from Egypt to Dar-Fur. The grass of the plains attains the height of 12 or 15 feet. Elephants, the rhinoceros, gazelles, ostriches, giraffes, and the usual African animals, are found within the limits of Nubia. Wild dogs and foxes are numerous. Several kinds of birds appear to be peculiar to this region, such as the occipital vulture, which inhabits the borders of both Nubia and Abyssinia. Buzzards, shrikes, thrushes, quails, and partridges, are also mentioned by travellers.

Nubia is inhabited by a great number of separate tribes. Northern Nubia is possessed by two independent nomadic races: the "Barabras," (called also Noubah, Kenouz, &c.,) who inhabit the districts west of the Nile; and the "Ababdes," a people differing entirely in customs, language, and dress, from the Arabs in Egypt, and who wander over the eastern deserts. The "Shegya" are a race of negroes, once peculiarly roving, fearless, and warlike, who occupy both banks of the Nile above Dongolah. The "Naabah" are a gentle race of negroes in Sennaar. They speak a soft sonorous language, totally different from that of their neighbors. They are idolators, and in some respects Sabians, for they always do homage to the moon. They are circumcised; but keep herds of swine, and eat pork freely. In 1504, a negro nation, till then unknown, came down the Abiad, and subdued the Nubians. They called themselves "Shillouks," and founded the city of Sennaar. They were originally idolators, but in their intercourse with Egypt were converted to Islam. The people who dwell along the Red Sea appear to be of Arab origin, and are still in the lowest stage of savage life, living in caves, and deriving their principal support from fishing. Towards the north-east, however, near Foul Bay, are a people of somewhat better habits, called "Bishareens" or Bejahs, who lead a nomadic life, deriving abundant food from the milk and flesh of their camels, cattle, and sheep. They are believed to be of the race of Barabras or Berebers.

The recent Egyptian conquest has obliterated the old political divisions of the country, and as yet it is improbable that it has been divided anew into provinces and municipal districts. The whole may therefore be considered as forming a consolidated dependency, occupied and garrisoned by the troops of Egypt. The cities and towns are few and unimportant, but the remains of ancient buildings and cave temples along the Nile, chiefly in Lower Nubia, form very attractive objects of curiosity to travellers and antiquaries. DONGOLAH, on the right bank of the Nile, in  $18^{\circ}$  N. latitude, the largest, richest, and most populous city in Nubia during the middle ages, is now reduced to the size of a village of about 300 inhabitants. MARAKAH, or New Dongolah, built by the Mamelukes after their expulsion from Egypt, is a large and populous city, 70 miles north. In the river, to the north of Marakah, is the magnificent "Island of Argo," 30 miles long and 7 broad, formed by the rich alluvial deposits of the Nile, which produces grain, cotton, indigo, and dates. SENNAAR, lately the capital of the kingdom

of Sennaar, is now almost deserted, the people having emigrated to Aleis, ten day's journey to the south-east, at the period of the Egyptian conquest. The few who remain live in straw huts, with the exception of two or three slave merchants, whose houses are made of mud. It stands near the left bank of the Azrek,  $13^{\circ} 37' N.$  latitude, and  $33^{\circ} 30' E.$  longitude. **KHARTUM**, at the confluence of the Abiad and Azrek, is now the seat of government: it has sprung up since Soudan became subject to the Pasha, and contains about 15,000 inhabitants. **SHENDY**, further north, on the right bank of the Nile, is a town of about 7,000 or 8,000 inhabitants, but now almost in ruins. Before the Egyptian conquest it was the principal commercial mart of Nubia, and a great slave market. At **ASSOUR**, a little village below Shendy, are the ruins of "Meroe," a city celebrated for its monuments, its commerce, its oracle of Ammon, and its pontiff king, chosen as was believed by the god himself, from among his priests; and a little further down the river is the island of "Kourgas," which contains three groups of ancient mausoleums, of a pyramidal form. Below the junction of the Tacazze, on the right bank of the Nile, is Berber, with 8,000 inhabitants, which is the rendezvous of the slave merchants from Sennaar and Khartum. **DERR**, chief town of Lower Nubia, is a small place, with an active population, 130 miles above Assouan. **SOUAKIN**, the only seaport of Nubia, is situated on the west coast of the Red Sea, in  $19^{\circ} 1' N.$  latitude. The town is built partly on an island and partly on the main, and contains about 8,000 inhabitants, who are chiefly Arabs or Berebers. It has one of the best and most frequented harbors on the Red Sea; and is one of the most commercial places under the authority of the Pasha, and a great slave market. **ABOUSAMBAL**, on the left bank of the Nile, about 50 miles above Derr, is remarkable for its remains of antiquity. Temples excavated in the rock, and other magnificent buildings of ancient date, testify to its former magnificence. Similar remains are found at Debod, Kalabshe, Girshe, Dakki, Derr, Eshke, Soleb, and Jebel-el-Barkel. The last is a lofty eminence near Merawe, which presents, partly cut out of the rocks, and partly built along its sides, seven or eight temples, the largest of which may vie with the most magnificent monuments of Egypt. Near these temples are 17 pyramids of no great size; but at El-Bellal, on the opposite or left side of the river, at the distance of seven miles, is a very magnificent range of pyramids, inferior only to the great piles of Egypt.

*Fazuola, Kordofan, Soudan, &c.*

Beyond the limits of what is considered Nubia, the pasha of Egypt also possesses **FAZUOLA**, a province of Abyssinia to the south of Sennaar; and **KORDOFAN**, to the west of the Bahr-el-Abiad. Kordofan is, properly speaking, only an assemblage of oases, or wahs, separated by vast deserts from Dar-Fur and the Bahr. The greater part of its inhabitants are negroes, somewhat civilized, and principally employed in agriculture. The remainder consists in Dongolese, who are devoted to commerce, and of Arabs, who wander over its deserts. Almost every person in Kordofan is a slave-merchant. "El-Obeid," the chief town, once a flourishing commercial station, is now a mass of ruins, but its name remains attached to three stations situated near the site which it occupied. The population of the three is stated at 30,000.

The pasha's revenue in Soudan is derived from his monopolies of coffee, gold, indigo, gum-arabic, and hides; taxation on the water-wheels; letting

the customs; and his purchase of cattle and camels. But it is said that his Soudan expenses exceed the proceeds, and that he holds the country under the present system of tyranny, because he has never forgiven the fate of Ismail Pasha, his son, who was burned to death at Shendy.

The greater part of our account of Egypt and Nubia has been collated from Dr. Bowring's elaborate "Report on Egypt and Candia," London, 1840.

Down to the year 1821 the people of Nubia and the other provinces were independent, living under their own meleks, or chiefs; but at that period Ibrahim Pasha reduced them to a dependency of Egypt. The same system of military despotism, and oppressive taxation that exists in Egypt, has been extended to these countries; but it is a question whether the people are more heavily taxed than formerly, while in other respects their condition is improved.

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## ABYSSINIA.

(*Itiopia*, Abyss.—*Agazi*, or *Ghez*—*Habesh*, Arab.)

ABYSSINIA, since the dissolution of the kingdom, cannot be said to have any definite boundaries. The term is applied to a vast territory, watered by the upper branches of the Nile, and situated between 7° and 16° N. latitude, and 33° and 45° E. longitude. The name of "Habesh," from which Europeans have formed "Abyssinia," is an Arabic term, meaning a mixed people, and scornfully spurned by the natives.

Abyssinia forms a table-land, inclining to the north-west, with two great declivities on the east and south sides, the former towards the Red Sea, and the latter towards the interior of Southern Africa. This table-land is intersected by mountains, but nothing is known respecting their direction and height. Besides the Nile and its branches, already described, the only rivers worthy of notice are the Chaala and the Hawash, both of which terminate in the lake Assal, which is said to be 750 feet below the level of the sea; and the Zebee, which drains a portion of the southern region, and probably falls into the Indian Ocean, near Zanzibar. There are several lakes, the largest and best known of which is Dembea, near the centre of Abyssinia. It receives the waters of a prodigious number of streams from the mountains which embosom it; but its principal feeder is the upper branch of the Bahr-el-Azrek, which enters it on the west side, and flows out again at the south-east corner. The lake contains eleven islands, the largest of which is called Tzana, whence the lake itself is sometimes called Bahr Tzana, or the Lake of Tzana.

The elevation of the country, and its abundance of waters, render the climate much cooler than that of Nubia and Egypt. In some parts the temperature of summer is not more than comfortable; but in the lower districts, the effects of a suffocating heat, combined with the exhalations of stagnant water, occasion several fatal diseases. The nature of the country, however, greatly modifies the influence of the latitudinal climate. Thus in the east, below the mountains on the borders of the Red Sea, the rainy season only begins when it ceases in the interior, and that region is burned up at other times with intolerable heat.

The productions of the country are very various. Abyssinia is said to

contain mines of iron, copper, lead, and sulphur: and gold of extreme fineness is, or used to be produced, in Damota and the shallow mines of Narea. The great salt plain, south of Tigré, supplies the whole of Abyssinia with salt, and the mineral, when cut into long, flat pieces, is one of the principal media of exchange. Though situated within the tropics, the vegetation of Abyssinia is somewhat extra-tropical. The chief alimentary plants are millet, barley, wheat, maize, and teff, the latter a grain smaller than the mustard, with an agreeable taste, and not liable to be spoiled by worms. There are generally two harvests: one during the rainy season, and the other in spring. At Adowah, and the neighborhood, there are three crops. Some vines are cultivated, and "ensete," an herbaceous plant resembling the banana. The papyrus is found in the marshes; myrrh, coffee, &c., are commercial staples; and the whole country is perfumed by roses, jessamines, lilies, and primroses. The zoology of Abyssinia is almost unknown. In the forests of the low regions elephants and monkeys are found, and the two-horned rhinoceros is common. Hyænas, lions, leopards, bears, gazelles, zebras, &c., inhabit the different parts. The cattle are numerous, and of large size. The ass and mule supply the place of the camel, while horses, which are small, but very lively, are used only for the purposes of war. The serpents are of enormous size, and the lakes and rivers swarm with sea-horses and crocodiles. The varieties of birds are not less numerous; one of which is the great golden eagle. The insect tribe are in great variety, and very splendid; and the locust is here, as in the greater part of Africa, the scourge of the people, and often produces the miseries of a famine. Bruce speaks also of a black ant, which nearly cut his carpets in shreds.

The "Abyssinians," or Agazians, are a fine-formed race, with handsome, bronze-colored features, and long hair. Their language is much mixed with the Arabic; but many of its roots are sufficiently peculiar to stamp the Agazians as an indigenous and primitive race. The Abyssinians are nominally Christians of the Jacobite sect, and used to have an ecclesiastical primate, called the "Abuna," appointed by the Coptic patriarch of Alexandria; but in reality their religion is a corrupt mixture of Paganism, Judaism, and Christianity of the lowest grade, and has very little influence on their manners and conduct. They are deeply superstitious, and are altogether in a low state of civilization. The arts and mechanical professions are chiefly in the hands of strangers, and especially of the Jews, who furnish all the smiths, masons, and thatchers of the country.

The "Gallas" are a savage and warlike people, who have made themselves masters of the southern provinces; and are distinguished from negroes by their low stature, deep brown complexions, and long hair. They are very ferocious, and steeped in idolatry. They worship trees, stones, the moon, and some of the stars; and believe in magic and a future state.

The "Shangallas" inhabit the wooded heights in the north-western parts. They are decidedly negroes, with faces not unlike those of apes. They spend one part of the year under the shades of trees, and the rest in caves dug in soft rocks. Some of the tribes feed on elephants and the rhinoceros, others on lions and bears, and some on locusts. They go quite naked, and are armed with poisoned darts. The Abyssinians hunt them like wild beasts.

The "Agows," another caste, form two tribes or nations occupying the country about the sources of the Tacazze and the Abawi. Possessing a

fertile but inaccessible country, courageous, and provided with good cavalry, they have maintained their independence against both the Gallas and the Abyssinians. Though they have been converted to Abyssinian Christianity, yet their principal worship is addressed to the spirit who presides at the source of the Abawi; and they every year sacrifice a cow to this spirit.

Besides these above enumerated there are the "Gafates," a numerous people, who live in Damota, and speak a distinct language; the "Gurags," a set of expert and intrepid robbers, who live in the hollows of the rocks, in the south east of Abyssinia, and the "Dobenah," a numerous tribe, who live by hunting elephants and rhinoceroses, between the Mareb and the Tacazze.

But, of all the people of Abyssinia, the Jews present the most extraordinary historical curiosity. They bear the name of Falasji, or the exiles, and seem to have formed for ages a state of more or less independence, in the province of Samen, under a dynasty, the king of which always bore the name of "Gideon," and the queens that of "Judith." Although reduced at last to very narrow limits, they could muster, in Bruce's time, 50,000 infantry. But their royal family having become extinct, they appear to be now dependent on the government of Tigré; and a great number also live among the Shellukhs, along the banks of the Abiad. They are even much more ignorant than the Christians; they are ignorant of the tribe to which they belong, and do not know at what period their ancestors came into Abyssinia.

The ancient monarchy of Abyssinia has been completely dismembered. Among the many petty states which have risen upon its ruins, the three following appear to predominate, viz:—the kingdoms of Amhara, Tigré, and Shoa; the first comprising the provinces to the west of the Tacazze; the second, the provinces east of that river, and the last the provinces to the south and west. The last appears to have been less injured by the civil wars than the rest.

#### THE KINGDOM OF AMHARA.

AMHARA comprises the central provinces, and has long been in a state of complete anarchy. The members of the royal family are dispersed over their country, and live partly by the bounty of the chiefs, and partly by their own industry. *Gondar*, the capital, is situated in a fine plain to the north of Lake Dembea. It is very extensive, but two-thirds of the houses appear to be in a ruinous state, and the population does not exceed 6,000.

#### THE KINGDOM OF TIGRE.

TIGRE is the strongest of these sovereignties, not only from its position, but also from the warlike spirit of the people and their resources. *Antalow*, its chief town, contains 1,000 houses, but the king generally resides at Shellikout. The palace and the church, which is considered to be one of the finest in Abyssinia, are its principal buildings. Tigré may be considered as the cradle of the Abyssinian Empire. Its people are the true Abyssinians, and have extended their dominion over the adjoining region, which has been dignified with the title of kingdom, and divided into provinces. It contains several other towns, in which some manufactures and considerable trade are carried on. Many splendid ruins, indicative of an ancient civilization, still exist.

## THE KINGDOM OF SHOA, OR SHWA.

SHOA includes the southern portion of the late empire, and the king, who is a member of the ancient royal family, has extended his dominion over many of the Galla tribes, and carries on an extensive slave-trade, exporting his captives through Tajura, a seaport town to the south-west of the Strait of Bab-el-mandeb. His capital is *Ankobar*, a small and unimportant place.

## OTHER SMALL PETTY STATES.

The low country between the eastern mountains and the Red Sea, is nearly uninhabited, from excessive heat and the scarcity of water. It is occupied by a number of small tribes, more or less savage, who preserve their independence, and form as many states as there are chiefs. The principal places are—*Durora*, a village on the Bay of Amphila; *Zulla*, or *Adullé*, a miserable town on Annesley Bay; *Massuah*, a small town of about 2,000 inhabitants, on an islet of the same name, with a good harbor, the principal station of the maritime commerce of Abyssinia, but now in possession of the Pasha of Egypt; *Arkiko*, a small town on the mainland, opposite Massuah, the residence of a “naib,” who recognizes the sovereignty of Tigré, but is independent in the administration of his petty state, &c., &c.

The ancients never acquired any accurate knowledge of Abyssinia. It was known to them under the name of “Æthiopia sub Ægypto,” and considered as the proper Æthiopia, though that term included all the then known Africa. The descriptions given of the people, inaccurate and confused as they are, however, sufficiently prove that the country had been visited, and the Greek inscriptions at Axum indicate that the natives were not unacquainted with the arts and literature of that polite nation. The port of Axum, indeed, in very early times, was that from which the finest ivory was exported, and a commercial intercourse maintained with the coasts of the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean. Prior to the fourth century Abyssinia was converted to Christianity, which it has ever since nominally professed; and after the spread of Islamism the country became a refuge for those sectaries who were reluctant to change their faith. The Arabian geographers make very slight mention of the country, so that Abyssinia remained almost unknown till near the era of modern maritime discovery.

In 1445 the emperor of Abyssinia sent an ambassador to the Senate of Florence, and wrote a famous letter to his subject priests at Jerusalem. This, and the favorable reports of the priests now referred to, gave rise to the most exaggerated rumors. It was said that a Christian prince, to whom the Portuguese gave the fantastical name of “Prester John,” ruled over a vast, highly civilized, and rich empire in the centre and east of Africa. This statement inflamed at once the spirit of discovery, and of religious zeal—the two ruling principles of the age. The Portuguese monarchs, who took the lead in exploring the eastern world, immediately devised measures for acquiring a knowledge of so remarkable a region. The passage to India by the Cape had not yet been discovered: Abyssinia was therefore viewed as a tract through which the commerce of India might be conducted. Two envoys were therefore sent to explore it, one of whom perished, while the other arrived in 1490 at the imperial court, residing then at Shoa. The reports which he made respecting the country were favorable, and having prevailed on the empress-mother to send an Armenian as an

ambassador to Portugal, the Portuguese sent out several other embassies. Of these the most remarkable is that described by Alvarez, in 1520. He remained six years in the country, and traversed it from north to south. Paez, Almeyda, Lobo, and others, successively undertook journeys into Abyssinia, and from the accounts of these and other missions, Tellez first, (1669,) and afterwards Ludolph, (1681,) principally compiled their histories.

Public curiosity, however, with respect to Abyssinia, gradually subsided; till towards the close of the last century, (1799,) it was revived by the publication of Bruce's Travels. Many of the circumstances he relates are so very extraordinary as to give to his descriptions a good deal the appearance of romance. The authenticity of his works was in consequence very generally doubted; and it must be admitted that some of his statements have been shown to be unfounded, and that others are of very questionable authority. But the accuracy of the leading features of his works has been fully established by Mr. Salt, and other late travellers.

Our limits will not permit of our laying before the reader any sketch of the history of Abyssinia; and though we had abundant space, the subject is too uninteresting to attract attention. All that is known respecting the country may be found in the "Modern Universal History," (vol. xv., 8vo. edition.) The reader may also consult the Travels of Bruce, Salt, and Lord Valentia, Mr. Gobat's Journal, to which is prefixed Dr. Lee's History of the Abyssinian Church; and the Encyclopædias generally.

## MOGHREB, OR NORTH-WESTERN AFRICA.

"*ARDH EL MOGHREB*" is the name given by the Arabs to the whole of Northern Africa west of Egypt. The name signifies "*the west*," and the people of those countries are called "Moghrebins" or Westlanders. Moghreb is divided into four portions:—1. "*Bilad-ul-Beraber*," the country of the Berebers, or Barbary; 2. "*Bilad-ul-Jerid*," the country of dates; 3. "*Es-Sahara*," or the Desert; and 4. "*Bilad-es-Soudan*," Negroland or the country of the Blacks. *Bilad-ul-Jerid* is, properly speaking, only the southern portion of Barbary to the confines of the Desert—it has no definite limits, and is rather a common appellation than a proper name; we shall therefore consider the first and second of these Arabic divisions as one geographical region, under the European name of Barbary,—reserving a separate section for each of the other two.

## THE STATES OF BARBARY.

BARBARY comprehends the long narrow tract of country along the southern coast of the Mediterranean Sea, from Egypt to the Atlantic, being bordered on the north-west by that ocean, and south by the Sahara. It lies between  $28^{\circ}$  and  $36^{\circ}$  N. latitude, and  $11^{\circ}$  W. and  $27^{\circ} 12'$  E. longitude, extending in length 2,000 miles, and varying in breadth from 400 miles downwards, and contains about 700,000 square miles.

The general aspect of the country has been noted before. The western portion is composed of the Atlas Mountains and their interjacent valleys,



with an extensive flat country on both sides, which slopes to the Mediterranean, and the Atlantic on the one side and the Great Desert on the other. The want of wood in these regions seem to be a remarkable characteristic, but the capability of the soil is extraordinary. The middle region, nearly corresponding in extent with Algeria, is separated from Morocco by the extensive Desert of Argad. North of the Atlas range the soil is generally fertile, and the aspect pleasant; but to the south, little else is seen than naked rocks and plains scorched by the sun. In Tunis the cultivable plains are of considerable extent, and well watered valleys occur among the offshoots of the Atlas. The soil has been celebrated for centuries: it was once considered as the granary of the world, and the most valuable province of the Roman Empire. Speaking, generally, sea-salt or chloride of sodium is spread over the soil of Barbary in surprising abundance, and most of the springs are saline. In Tripoli the desert presses forward on the sea, leaving only a few fertile tracts among the hills and along the shore. The eastern portion of it skirts the greater Syrtis, the coast of which forms a wild and dreary region. It is not, however, entirely barren, for though it is parched up in summer, yet after the autumnal rains the ground is covered with a luxuriant vegetation. Barca is generally a sandy desert, but certain portions of it are very fertile, and only require the hand of industry to make them productive. The north-western tract was the Pentapolis of the ancients, and from the care bestowed upon it, arrived at a very high degree of cultivation. To the east, however, on the confines of Egypt, the country increases in sterility: the few patches of cultivation it contains are near the coast, or form oases in the midst of the Lybian desert, which constitutes the western border of the Region of the Nile.

The rivers and lakes of Barbary are neither numerous nor important. The Mejerdah is the only one navigable, and that after the rains. The other principal rivers are the Shelif and the Mohalou. The latter is reckoned the largest river of Barbary, though in summer it is often dried up. The Atlantic Ocean receives the Aoulkos and the Seboo, the latter of which is navigable for boats to Fez. The Om-erbegh separates Fez from Morocco. The Tensift, called also Wady Mara-kash, passes a few miles north of Morocco, and enters the sea between Mogadore and Asafy. There are also several rivers in Bilad-ul-jerid, which flow into the desert, and are absorbed by the sand, or form marshes, where their waters are evaporated by the heat.

The Salt Lake of Marks, the Palis Tritonis of the ancients, is situated in the southern part of Tunis, and consists of a great extent of drift sand, in which tracks of caravans are marked out by the trunks of palm-trees fixed in the ground—from which circumstance it has received its name. It is about eighty miles long by twenty broad. After the rains it forms a great salt lake; but in summer it is nearly dry, and covered with salt. It contains several islands of firm soil, which are covered with groves of palms. Two lakes named “Al Shot,” or “Al Shat,” the one 140 miles south-east, and the other 250 miles south-west of Algiers; Melgig, not far west of Sibkah, and the Lake Beni Gumi to the east of Tafielt, are large receptacles for the rivers of Bilad-ul-jerid, and of much the same character with the lake of Marks. There are, indeed, several other lakes of this kind, all of which are called Sibkah (i. e. salted earth.) The Lake of Bizerta is a large double lake in Tunis, near the sea, with which it is connected by a broad canal flowing through the town. The Lake of Fezarah, south of Bona, is about ten geographical miles in length, and six and a half in breadth, but very

shallow. Along the west side of the Gulf of Sidra, or the greater Syrtis, there is an extensive marsh, about 100 miles in length, with a breadth varying from two to fifteen miles. The water spreads itself in pools, over the wide tract of country, communicating occasionally with the sea. Many of these pools are several miles in extent; and the marsh is very dangerous, if not wholly impassible, after heavy rains.

In the middle of the coast of Barbary are two gulfs of great celebrity. The gulf of Sidra or Sert, (the Syrtis Major of antiquity,) forms a deep indentation between Tripoli and Barca, measuring 246 geographical miles across its mouth, and the circuit of its shore is 422. The Syrtis Minor or Gulf of Khabz forms a similar indentation, but of much smaller dimensions between Tunis and Tripoli. The coasts of both gulfs are covered with a succession of small islands, sand banks and places with a small depth of water, the danger of which was much increased to the ancient navigators by the flux and reflux of the waves, occasioned by the violent north and east winds. The only large island is that of Jerbah, 23 miles by 16, at the south-eastern side of the gulf of Khabz. It was called by the ancients *Lotophagitis*, and was celebrated as the abode of the *Lotophagi* or eaters of the lotus, a delightful fruit, said to have been so intoxicating, that whoever partook of it straightway forgot his own country and wished only to spend his life in the happy region where it was produced. It is still found in the whole of this coast and sold in all the markets, under the Arabic name of *jube*. The modern inhabitants are celebrated for their manufacturing industry. The *Karkenah* islands, the ancient *Cercina*, lie on the north of the gulf of Khabz. *Penon de Velez*, 77 miles south-east of Ceuta, on the north coast of Marocco, contains a strong fort which is used as a place of banishment for Spanish criminals. The "*Jezirat-ul-Jafarin*" are three small islands on the gulf of Melillah, one of which rises to the height of 440 feet. Alboran is a small island in the Mediterranean Sea, 125 miles east of Gibraltar.

The climate of the maritime districts is in general temperate, being protected by the high ranges of the Atlas from the hot winds of the desert. Rain is frequent in the winter months, but in summer it is rarely known, and as a consequence the atmosphere becomes heated and productive of formidable diseases. In the rainy season the mornings are usually cold, and frost and snow are occasionally experienced. Winter, however, is the season of verdure; the gentle heat that then prevails, accompanied as it is by rain, hastens the growth of a multitudinous vegetation, and plants spring up in the country as they do in the more northern regions on the return of spring. As the sun advances northward the rain becomes less copious, the heat increases, the rivers and lakes dry up, the trees lose their verdure, and everything is burnt up. At this season also the noxious atmosphere of the desert is brought on by the south winds. Towards August the temperature moderates and gradually falls during the succeeding autumn, which ends in November, when the winter or rainy season commences. The easterly winds which blow from March to September are usually dry, though the atmosphere is cloudy; westerly and northerly winds loaded with moisture prevail in March, with showers during the intervals of the gales. Notwithstanding, however, all its drawbacks, the climate of the northern region is generally fine. In the southern parts the heat is oppressive, and the people in the summer season leave their habitations to dwell under the shadow of the palm trees. In Eastern Barbary the climate is unpleasant, the heat of the day and the coldness of the night being equally insupportable.

The primary rocks of Barbary consist in part of granite, but chiefly of gneiss and micaceous schist. Travertine is found on the coast, but in the interior a lime formation often alternates with a schistose marl. The secondary deposits consist in many places of a lias formation and calcareous strata, containing a few animal but no vegetable remains. The tertiary deposits are mostly calcareous, much impregnated with salt and sometimes with iron. All the chain of Atlas has a tertiary clay deposit. Some parts appear to be rich in minerals. Salt is everywhere abundant, and nitre is found in several districts. Iron, copper, fuller's earth, potter's clay, talc, pyrites, &c., abound. Diamonds have been found in the sands of the Wady-el-Kammel and other torrents, mixed with small quantities of gold-dust, silver, tin and antimony. Saline, hot and cold springs are exceedingly abundant, more so in fact than those of fresh water. The latter, however, are by no means rare, and may everywhere be found by digging through a crust of flaky, soft stone, lying at different depths.

The vegetation is closely allied to that of southern Europe. The soil of the plains is light and sandy, but the valleys of the Atlas are covered with a compact, fertile and well watered earth. Hence the common native plants take deep root, while the rarest species grow in the marshes and forests. The arid shores are covered with saline and succulent plants. The dry and watery table-lands of the interior resemble the llanos of Spain, and abound in groves of cork-trees and evergreen oaks, under whose shadow sage, lavender and other aromatic plants grow in great abundance, and rise to an extraordinary height. The forests which cover the northern sides of the mountains are composed of oaks, the mastic tree, the cypress and wild olive. All the valleys that have a moderate elevation form in April and May so many delightful retreats : the shade, the coolness, the bright verdure, the diversity of flowers, and the mixture of agreeable odors, combine to charm the senses and detain the wanderer within their balmy sphere. On the coasts and on the plains the orange, myrtle, lupin and narcissus are in January covered with flowers ; but in the summer months the parched and cracked soil is covered only with the yellow remains of dead and withered plants ; yet at this season the rose-bay displays its bright flowers on the banks of all the streams, from the tops of the mountains to the deepest valleys.

Among the cultivated plants are wheat, barley, maize, the holcus sorghum and the holcus saccharatus ; and rice in the grounds capable of being inundated. These also include tobacco, dates, olives, figs, almonds, vines, apricots, jujubs, melons, saffron, the mulberry and sugar-cane. The gardens yield nearly all the species of pulse known in Europe. Wheat is sown in autumn and gathered in April and May ; maize and sorghum are sown in spring and cut down in summer ; and oats grow spontaneously. The fruits of Europe, with the fig, &c., are very fine and plentiful.

The Moors and Arabs are the principal cultivators. The only trees on which they bestow any care, are the olive, date, palm, lemon, orange, apple and pear. Wheat is the grain most cultivated, and is equal to the best of Europe. Barley is used as food only in times of scarcity, but it is extensively consumed by cattle and poultry. Next to wheat, durrah (sorghum or millet) is the most extensively cultivated grain. Maize is grown chiefly along the sea coast and in the southern districts ; it forms almost entirely the food of the slaves. Rye is the only grain that is allowed to be exported. The stalks of these grains are burned on the ground for manure. The rice is of bad quality, and that which is used by the grandees is imported from

America. Vegetables of all kinds, especially calavances, are grown in abundance. Potatoes have been introduced and are becoming a favorite food among the people. There are also many roots to which the Moors and Arabs have recourse in times of scarcity.

The animal kingdom comprises all the usual animals of Africa, except the rhinoceros, hippopotamus, giraffe, zebra, and many monkey tribes. Barbary produces fine horses, and also two kinds of asses. The cattle generally are small and lean, but goats and sheep are plentiful. Cats, dogs, and European poultry are common, and the Arabs pay great attention to the rearing of bees. Of all the domestic animals the sheep are the most important in number and value. In Marocco alone they are computed at forty or forty-five millions. The quality of the wool is very fine, superior indeed to that of Europe; the amount exported, however, is comparatively small. The goats of Marocco number from ten to twelve millions, and the number of camels is about half a million. The horses of the same country are computed at 400,000, and the asses at 2,000,000, while mules are found in still greater numbers. As dogs are never put to death, they necessarily exist to an indefinite offensiveness, and it is confidently asserted that these animals are never affected with hydrophobia, but, though they escape, mules it is said are subject to this malady. Not the least important among the animals of Barbary is the locust, whose multiplying power is almost incredible. It is said that one female lays 700,000 eggs in the sand, which are hatched in a short time. The locusts are eaten by the Moors.

The people of Barbary are comprised in the seven classes of Moors, Arabs, Berebers, Shellukhs, Jews, Turks and Negroes. The Moors generally inhabit the towns and cultivated plains, and though they speak a dialect of Arabic, their physical constitution, their complexion and countenance, seem to indicate that they are a different race, and descended probably from the ancient Mauritanians and Numidians, mixed with the various foreign races which have conquered and settled in the country. At present they constitute the aristocracy of the country. Both the men and women are handsome in form, and the women are sometimes even pretty; they consider obesity and hanging breasts as the acmé of perfect beauty, and torture their children to procure this result. The Moors exercise every calling known in more civilized countries, but the several trades are generally still in their infancy among them. They are excellent horsemen, and their feats in this art are often wonderful. With respect of their moral qualities M. Grabeg de Hemso says, "the character of these Africans, I can conscientiously aver, is made up of all that is meanest and vilest in the heart of man. They are now exactly the same barbarians as their ancestors were in the days of Sallust and Procopius; that is to say, they are fickle, perfidious, cruel and incapable of being restrained by either fear or kindness. Even their countenance has in it something sinister and revolting, which cannot be contemplated without an involuntary shudder." They are all Mahomedans; extremely fanatical; and like the religious fanatics of all countries, consider their piety as a compensation for every moral defect. In spite of their indolence, says M. Rozet, they generally receive a better education than the people of France. Almost all men read, write, and know something of arithmetic; but the Koran comprises almost the only subject of their literary education. M. Rozet, however, met Moors at Algiers who were really well informed men, and who spoke several languages, were tolerably well acquainted with geography, and even knew something of history. Music is nearly unknown among them.

The Arabs do not differ essentially from those of Egypt and Arabia. Those of Marocco are wholly Bedouins and live in tents, leading a pastoral life. The Arabs of Algeria may be divided into two great classes: those who have adopted settled pursuits and the Bedouins, but generally there is little other difference in the whole race, except that produced by locality, climate, and other external influences. Their mental character and acquirements are the same in Arabia and Barbary.

The Berebers and Shellukhs appear to be radically the same people, though a considerable difference is observed between them. They are believed to be the aboriginal natives of Northern Africa. The Berebers form at present four distinct nations, viz: the Amazighs or Kabyles; the Shellukhs; the Tuaricks, and the Tibboos. The "Amazighs" occupy the valleys and higher parts of the Atlas. In Algiers they are called Kabayil, and in Tunis, Zowavah. They are remarkable for their robust figures, handsome features and fair complexions. There are many families among them with blue eyes and color as florid as that of the natives of northern Europe. They are chiefly shepherds and hunters, live in a savage state, in villages planted on hill tops, and not a few of them dwell in caves. In the more productive parts of the valleys they cultivate the ground and rear many bees. In their political state they are divided in tribes, each of which is governed by a Sheikh, and there are families among them which are recognized as patricians. These tribes sometimes confederate under a Sheikh-zabo for purposes of war or plunder. They are a warlike race and very jealous of their independence; but have a very savage mode of warfare. With respect to their language, all the information that has been collected confirms the opinion that it is an original language, approaching somewhat, however, to the Hebrew in its construction. It has no affinity whatever to the Arabic, except in a few words, as religious, metaphysical and technical terms, expressive of new ideas, and such like, which have been adopted from their Arab neighbors. They are generally Moslems. The "Shellukhs" possess the southern ridges of the Atlas to the south of Fez. They are similar to the other Berebers in character, but they live separately; and although their habitations are sometimes very near, they have no social intercourse; nor is an instance known of individuals of the two nations having intermarried. Their languages have also a great affinity. At present neither the Berebers nor the Shellukhs know of any other written characters than the Arabic. The "Tuaricks" and the "Tibboos" are the possessors of the middle and eastern parts of the Sahara.

The "Jews" are here, as elsewhere, a proscribed race. They generally live separately, in the seaport towns and villages, being employed in commerce, and as artisans and interpreters; and it is through their agency that all intercourse with foreigners is carried on. They are the descendants of those who were driven out of Europe in the 14th and 15th centuries. Those who live among the Berebers are comparatively happy, particularly the ancient families, known by the name of Pilistin, who are supposed to have been established in the country from remote antiquity. In Algeria and Tunis they are less degraded than in Marocco; and at Algiers an Arab would not sell a couple of fowls without the aid of a Jew, who has always a per centage for his trouble. In spite of their disabilities, however, the Jews are the best informed and most civilized and able people in Barbary; and also very faithful as merchants and agents. The whole number in Barbary is about 700,000. With the exception of those in Algeria, the Jews of Barbary are governed by their own laws. Those of Tunis have a

kaid or governor appointed by the Bey, and who may be considered as their first magistrate in all things temporal; but their spiritual concerns are managed by the Chief Rabbi, who possesses great power, more even than the kaid himself. The Jews are all a very laborious people; and are, in fact, the only working class in Barbary.

The "Turks" have been for three centuries the dominant people of Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli. Sprung from them is a mixed race called Kouloughis, consisting of the offspring of Turks by Moorish women. They are as refined as their fathers, and as vicious as their mothers. With the Moorish features they have whiter skins, and are more comely. They lead a life of indolence, being generally rich from the inheritance of their fathers—an inheritance accruing mostly from the profits of piracy.

The "Negroes," brought from Soudan, have been slaves in Barbary from time immemorial. Almost all the Moors are inveterate slave holders and dealers. These slaves, however, live precisely in the same manner and have the same habits as their masters. They exercise almost every calling, and may purchase their freedom either with money or services; and many persons when they die manumit their slaves. The latter then become Moslems, and immediately enjoy all the immunities of free citizens. Such is the origin of the negro population in Barbary. They are distinguished from the Moors only by their features and complexion, and perhaps by a few superstitious practises, peculiar to themselves, but they enjoy every political and civil privilege of the latter. They often enlist as soldiers, and are generally very brave. In Marocco they compose the Sultan's body guard, which forms the best portion of his army.

Besides the classes already mentioned there are a few Christians, who are chiefly European merchants; and the French in Algeria will come under the same category; but Christian slavery no longer exists.

Barbary is divided into four large independent states, viz :

<i>Names.</i>	<i>Area* in sq. miles.</i>	<i>Population.*</i>	<i>Capitals.</i>
MAROCCO.....	220,000.....	8,500,000.....	Marakesh..... 50 000
ALGERIA, or Algiers.....	160,000.....	2,500,000.....	Algiers..... 70,000
TUNIS.....	72,000.....	2,000,000.....	Tunis..... 120,000
TRIPOLI, with Barca.....	140,000.....	1,800,000.....	Tripoli..... 25,000

Besides these there is the "Bilad-Sidi-Hesham" or Sidi-Hesham's Country, a new state, founded in 1810 by Sidi-Hesham, the son of the Sherif Achmed-ebn-Mousay. It is composed in part of the province of Suz, and extends to the east and south of the country. Inhabited by an industrious agricultural, mercantile, and warlike people, it seems to have become the centre of the trade between Marocco and Timbuctoo—the Moorish merchants preferring to stop here rather than cross the desert. *Talent* is the capital, and at *Ilegh* is the venerated tomb of Achmed, the father of Hesham. The southern part of the state includes the large valley and river of Wady-Nun.

#### MOGHREB-UL-AKSA, OR MAROCCO.

The Empire of Marocco occupies the north-west corner of Africa, between 28° and 36° N. latitude, and 11° 30' W. and 2° 36' E. longitude, measur-

\* The area and population of these states is quite problematical, and, indeed, whatever is stated respecting them can at best be but approximate to the truth.

ing about 700 miles in extreme length, and 360 in breadth. It covers a surface of 24,379 square leagues, or about 220,000 square miles, with a sea-coast on the Mediterranean of 270 miles, and on the Atlantic, 560 miles.

This empire consists, within its actual limits, of the Kingdom of Fez to the north of the river Om-erbegh; of that of Marocco with a part of the Kingdom of Suz, to the south of that river, and the Kingdom of Tafilelt, the country of Sahara, and the district of El Hharits, all to the east and south of the Atlas range. Marocco and Fez are divided into 30 provinces, some of which are very large, while others consist of no more than a town with the adjoining district.

The population is variously estimated at from 5,500,000 to 14,886,000; but Mr. Graberg, whose statement is, perhaps, as reliable as any, gives it at 8,500,000, and distributes it, according to races, in the following manner, viz:—Berebers and Tuaricks, 2,300,000; Shellukhs, 1,450,000; Moors and mixed Arabs, 3,550,000; Bedouins and pure Arabs, 740,000; Jews, 339,500; Negroes, 120,000; European Christians, 300; and renegadoes 200. Their distribution in the different divisions of the empire he gives as follows, viz:—in Fez, 3,200,000; Marocco, 3,600,000; Tafilelt and Sigelmessa, 700,000; and Al Draha and Suz, 1,000,000, which gives 38.5 individuals to the square mile.

The government is a pure despotism, in which the will of the emperor is the supreme law. He is head of both church and state, which are inseparable. In the capital the emperor administers justice in person, and in the provinces “khalifs” or governors are invested with the same prerogatives. Their judgments, it is said, are generally correct, and always prompt. Their ruling principle of government seems to be to keep the people poor, and in a condition in which they are unable to rebel. The revenue is derived from taxes paid in kind, one-tenth of corn, one-twentieth of cattle, a capitation tax on all Jews, and fines on districts where crimes have been committed; but it is very uncertain, and has often to be forcibly levied. It amounts to a sum between 2,600,000 and 4,500,000 dollars, while the expenditure amounts only to about one-third the amount, leaving a large surplus to be buried in the imperial treasury. The regular military establishment does not exceed 15,000 or 16,000 men, of whom one-half are negroes. They are distributed in garrisons and shifting camps, in forts, seaports, and in the imperial residences. About one-half this number is cavalry. This force, however, can be increased ten fold from the militia. The naval force of the empire consists of 3 brigs, mounting 40 guns, and 13 sloops, stationed at the mouth of the principal rivers: this force was much larger at the close of the last century than at present, having consisted of 10 frigates, 4 brigs, 14 schooners, and 19 sloops, manned by 6,000 intrepid seamen; but when piracy was put an end to by the superior power of Europeans, armed vessels were found to be of little use, and too costly.

The present empire was established in 1547, by a Sherif, or descendant of Mahomed, whose posterity still enjoys the sovereignty, after having survived several revolutions. Some of these princes have been able men, but generally they have exhibited a peculiarly jealous and ferocious character; and Marocco has been ruled by some of the most blood-thirsty tyrants recorded in history. The distinction of Sherif descends to all their male offspring, and consequently preserves them from obscurity, that so soon involves the posterity of other Moslem princes. The Sherifs, indeed, constitute a very powerful class, and are said to number no less than 40,000, who chiefly reside in Tafilelt; nor will the number surprise us when we

consider that Mulai Sherif, the founder of the dynasty, had 84 sons and 124 daughters, and that one of his sons, Mulai-Israel, had a family of 824 sons and 325 daughters! The succession is generally disputed by several of these Sherifs, and one of them lately, (1810,) founded an independent state, (Bilad-Sidi-Hesham,) in the southern part of the empire.

The soil and climate have been sufficiently discussed in a previous section. The soil is everywhere fertile, and in some favored spots three crops of corn are reaped in the same year. Agriculture, however, owing, perhaps, to this extreme fertility, is in the most backward state: fallows and rotation of crops are wholly unknown: indeed the state of culture has remained almost unchanged since the Arab conquest, in the 11th century, and it consists of little more, generally speaking, than grubbing up and burning the weeds before the annual rains come on, and afterwards ploughing the land, six inches deep, with a machine of the most simple description, drawn by a heifer or an ass, and in the southern provinces by a camel. Land is usually valued by the number of oxen it will require for its cultivation, at the rate of about seven dollars for a yoke of oxen. The pasture-grounds are extremely rich, the grass often attaining a height only equalled by the western prairies of this country. Horses and cattle, with sheep, goats, &c., are very numerous.

Manufactures and trade are confined within very narrow limits. Except in the towns, even but little furniture is found in the houses. Every woman, however, understands the art of spinning wool and cotton; and the men weave it into cloth. Domestic labor in short, which is almost wholly performed by the women, supplies the principal wants of the people. Tanning appears to be almost the only exception: leather is made in great quantities all over the empire, but especially in the large towns; that of Fez being red, while that of Tafilelt and Marocco is respectively green and yellow. About 250,000 dozen of goat-skins are annually exported. The red caps, silk fabrics, and girdles of Fez, are highly esteemed; carpets, chip-baskets, and earthenware, are manufactured in the different provinces; and in the different towns may be found skilful saddlers, carpenters, locksmiths, and farriers.

The commerce of Marocco is carried on—1st, with Europe; 2d, with the Levant; 3d, with the interior of Africa; and, lastly, with America. The exports of Europe, comprising wax, cow-hides, goat-skins, olive oil, gums, with small quantities of wool, dates, honey, indigo, shawls, carpets, &c., amount to about 1,000,000 piastres a year; and the imports, consisting chiefly of manufactured and colonial goods, only to about two-thirds that amount. The tariff is regulated by the whim of the Emperor, and prohibitions and imposts vary at every port. The trade with the Levant is carried on partly by pedlars, accompanying the pilgrim caravan of Mecca, and partly also by feluccas, coasting the shores of Africa, as far as Alexandria. The communication with the interior is effected by caravans proceeding from Tafilelt, and crossing the Sahara to Timbuctoo, where the traders exchange salt, tobacco, cloth caps, girdles, Turkish daggers, &c., for gold-dust, ivory, rhinoceros horns, assafœtida, ostrich feathers, and slaves. Their profits would seem to be immense; since for 1,000,000 piasters, the value of the goods exported, the returns amount to the value at least of 10,000,000; but a great part of the amount of this excess is swallowed up by the expense of the conveyance of the goods across the desert and back again. The trade with America is wholly carried on in United States bottoms; but it amounts to very little, being more incidental than regular.



The law of Morocco forbids interest on money; but, notwithstanding, the Jews and others exact sums varying from 7 to 12 per cent. a month, on the security of merchandize. Paper money and bills of exchange are wholly unknown; nor is there any communication by post, for the purpose of facilitating correspondence. Mogadore is the chief port for foreign commerce.

The prevailing religion is Mahomedanism; and nowhere are its tenets and observances more rigidly enforced. The Jews are universally despised, nor are the Christians allowed to reside anywhere, except in Tangier, Mogadore, Larashe, and Tetuan. The education of the Moors is at present greatly inferior to that of their forefathers, in the middle ages; and is almost exclusively confined to learning the Koran by rote, reading and writing. At some of the city schools, however, grammar, geometry, and the mixed sciences, logic, rhetoric, medicine, and theology are taught; and many students become learned men. The art of printing is unknown, so that great numbers are employed in copying the Koran, &c. The arts are in the most barbarous state; the literature and history of foreign countries are not generally known; and their only musical instruments are a rude pipe, and still more barbarous drum.

The towns of Morocco are neither numerous nor populous. Morocco contains only about 50,000 inhabitants; Mekenez, 56,000; Fez, 88,000. There are three other towns, with from 20,000 to 30,000 inhabitants; two, with from 15,000 to 20,000; five, with from 10,000 to 15,000; and six, with from 3,000 to 10,000.

MAROCOCO, (Marakesh, or Morocco,) the capital, is situated near the northern limit of a large plain, 1,500 feet above the level of the sea, in  $31^{\circ} 37' 30''$  N. latitude, and  $7^{\circ} 36'$  W. longitude. The city is six miles in circuit, enclosed by a strong wall with square towers, and pierced with eleven gates; but the enclosure is far from being covered with buildings, being occupied mostly by gardens, and even farms. The streets are narrow and irregular, and the houses usually of one story, and flat-roofed. The city contains nineteen mosques, two madresses or colleges, and one hospital. The palace is built in a separate enclosure on the south side of the city, measuring about 1,500 yards by 600, occupied chiefly by gardens, pavilions, and other usual ornaments. The city is placed in the midst of a forest of palms, and the plain in which it stands extends east and west between a range of low schistose hills to the north, and the Atlas to the south. The Wady Tensift runs through it, and is crossed a few miles from the city by a bridge of thirty arches. The city is supplied with water, which is conducted from the Atlas, at a distance of twenty miles, by spacious aqueducts.

FEZ, the capital of the kingdom of the same name, and once the metropolis of Moghreb-ul-Aksa, is situated in  $34^{\circ} 6'$  N. latitude, and  $4^{\circ} 58'$  W. longitude, on the banks of an affluent of the Seboo. The houses, built of brick, are generally of two stories, containing courts in the centre, and are flat-roofed. The streets are paved, but narrow, winding, and dirty. The only remarkable buildings are the mosques and miaurets. Its madresses are celebrated all over Africa for the efficiency and learning reputed to their doctors. Its library is also said to be considerable for this part of the world. The manufactures of woollens, swords, and fire-arms, morocco leather, gunpowder, &c., employ a great portion of the inhabitants, who also carry on a very extensive commerce.

MEKINEZ, 33 miles west by south of Fez, is chiefly important as an im-

perial residence. The other towns of the empire are unimportant. **TETUAN**, 20 miles west of Ceuta, possesses the only harbor on the Mediterranean coast, and has a considerable trade and population. **TANGIER**, a little to the east of Cape Spartel, has a good harbor, and a very active trade, and is the ordinary residence of the foreign consuls. **LARASHE**, at the mouth of the Luccos River, is the station of the imperial fleet. **SALEE**, formerly the resort of pirates, who scourged the neighboring seas, is now an unimportant place. **RABAT**, or New Salee, on the opposite side of the Buregreg, is still one of the principal towns of the empire, and has a population amounting to 25,000. **MOGADORE**, 130 miles west of Morocco, is the first maritime station, and the most commercial town of the empire. The harbor is now almost choked up with sand; and **Agadir**, **Tarandant**, and **Tragavost**, are large cities. Of the towns in **Tafilelt** and **Sigelmessa**, little or nothing is known.

Marocco, anciently called **Mauritania**, was inhabited, under the Romans, by a hardy nomadic race, who were never thoroughly subdued by that nation. Early in the 7th century the country yielded to the Saracens, whose different dynasties disputed for its possession for nearly 300 years. At length, in the 11th century, a chief of **Leptuma** having acquired so high a reputation for sanctity as to cause all the neighboring tribes to flock to his standard, overturned the then existing government, and extended his dominion all over North Africa. His son, **Joseph Ben-Tessisin**, extended the empire by the addition of **Fez**, and the southern provinces of Spain. In 1148, however, another revolution took place, and the **Morabites** were succeeded by the **Almohades**, who in their turn yielded the empire to more successful adventurers. In this state of anarchy the country remained till the middle of the 16th century, when **Mahmed-Ben-Achmet**, a **Sherif**, and descendant of the **Prophet**, ascended the throne, which his posterity has ever since continued to occupy. The **Moors** lost their European possessions at the latter part of the 16th century, and in 1810 a new state was formed in the southern part of the empire, by an ambitious son of the late emperor.

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#### ALGIERS, OR ALGERIA.

**ALGIERS**, now frequently called "**Algeria**," till recently the most powerful of the Barbary States, corresponds very nearly to the **Numidia Proper** of the Romans, with some portion of the region south of the **Atlas**, anciently inhabited by the **Getulæ** and **Garamantes**. It extends eastward along the Mediterranean, from Morocco, about 650 miles.

**Algeria** is mostly a mountainous country, and some of the culminations exceed the height of 8,000 or 9,000 feet, all of which belong to the **Atlas** range. There are few plains of great extent; that of **Metidjah**, immediately south of **Algiers**, is 50 by 20 miles. It is fertile, well-watered, and covered with abundant vegetation, but is in part marshy and unhealthy. Besides this principal, there are also several smaller plains, both to the east and west, many of which are sandy and saltish, dry in summer and inundated in winter. The **Atlas** range is the watershed of the country, and rivers pour down from both its sides. The **Shelliff**, the **Wad-el-Keber**, the **Seibous**, **Booberac**, **Yissa**, **Zowah**, **Wady-el-Zaine**, &c., empty into the Mediterranean. The large rivers, the **Adjedi**, and **Abiad**, run south-east, and empty themselves into the **Lake Melgig**; and many rivers of inferior

magnitude flow into the Al-Shot. The plains and river valleys are all very fertile, and produce every variety of vegetation peculiar to the latitude. With regard to climate, a great difference is found in the districts north and south of the mountains; the former is protected from the fiery heats of the deserts, and its atmosphere fanned by the sea-breeze; the latter is intolerably hot, being patent to all the influences, not only of the latitude, but also those of the desert winds.

The geological character of this region differs nothing from that of Barbary. Salt and iron are everywhere abundant, and copper has been found in various places. The precious metals and diamonds are also found in several of the streams, and hot and saline springs are exceedingly abundant, more so, indeed, than those of fresh water. The vegetation of the northern districts assimilates to that of the south of Europe, and the rest of the Mediterranean coast. The mountains are covered with thick forests. But south of the range are found the date-bearing palm, and other trees belonging to a warmer climate. Lions of great size and strength, panthers, hyænas, and leopards, inhabit the mountain recesses; wild boars, wolves, and jackals, are more common, and there are a few bears. Wild-cats, monkeys, jerboas, &c., and other animals peculiar to the whole maritime district, are more or less plentiful; and coral, which is very abundant on the coasts, forms an important article of produce and industry; it is of a larger sort, but less vivid in color than that of Sicily.

The population of Algeria is composed of nine distinct races, viz.: the Berebers, the aborigines of the country, and who constitute about one-half of the whole; the Biskeris or Mozabs, supposed to have descended from the ancient Getulæ; the Moors; the Arabs; the Negroes; the Jews, who form about one-half the population of the great cities; the Turks, now very few, nor ever very numerous, although long the dominant race; the Kooloughis, or descendants of Turks by Moorish mothers, their name literally signifying *sons of soldiers*; and lastly Europeans, mostly French. Among the Berebers of the Auress, is a tribe distinguished by a fair complexion, blue eyes, and light hair, believed to be the descendants of the Vandals. Traces of the Huns, Suevi, and other Gothic nations, have been also found. In social and industrial pursuits the Algerines differ little from their confreres of Marocco. Agriculture, as a science, is unknown; practically this is of inferior moment, as the fertility of the soil, in a great measure, countervails the industry required to produce in less favored countries. The soil is generally tilled by the Arabs, who are also the great cattle raisers in the country. Almost all the trades of Europe are followed in the towns, but little skill or industry is perceptible in their manufactures. The Jews monopolize the greater part of the external commerce, with the higher branches of art. The Arabs are merchants, tanners and carpenters; the Negroes, bricklayers, and other artificers; and the natives extract metals from the mountains, &c. The chief manufactures are coarse linen, woollen, and silk goods, sadlery, carpets, fire-arms, pottery, &c. Women only are employed in the cotton and woollen factories, as well as in the slavish occupation of grinding corn.

The coral fishery is prosecuted from the middle of April to the end of July. Ten years being generally allowed for the growth of the coral, different spots are annually chosen for the fishery. Foreigners are allowed to fish on paying a rent to government. In 1836 there were 245 boats engaged in this fishery, principally off Bona, the revenue accruing on which to the French, was 242,222 francs, and the value of the coral exported in 1837 amounted to 1,163,513 francs.

Such is the inexhaustible nature of the soil that, notwithstanding the low state of agriculture, corn and animal products have always formed a principal part of the exports, and Marseilles and other towns of southern France, with Genoa, &c., in Italy, used to derive a considerable portion of their supplies from Algiers. Exclusive of these, the principal articles of export were corals, hides, wool, wax, oil, leather, gums, ostrich feathers, dates, minerals, &c. But since the French occupancy of the country the exportation of corn has almost ceased, and besides supplies obtained in the country, large quantities have been imported for the use of the troops. European goods are in much request, and are bartered in the south for gold-dust, ostrich feathers, &c. The other principal articles of importation are cotton, woollen, silk and linen stuffs, but particularly the first; wines and fruits; sugar and coffee; arms, hardware, cutlery, &c. The value of this commerce in 1837, was: imports, 33,056,246—exports, 2,946,691 francs. It is supposed, however, that of the imports about one-third part were on account of the army. Previous to 1830, the established rates of duty were five and ten per cent. on imported articles, according to stipulations in the treaties with the countries of which they were the produce. No duties are now charged on French goods, nor on foreign commodities required for the subsistence of the inhabitants; but on other articles the duties vary from a fifth to a fourth part of those of the French tariff. The increase of shipping has been quite equal to the increase of trade, and the proportion of both in the hands of the French is rapidly increasing. A regular intercourse is kept up by means of steam packets, between Marseilles and Algiers.

The barbarians, by whom this fine country has been so long laid waste, while they neglected all the old Roman roads, constructed none themselves; so that the communication between different parts was very difficult, and produce could only be conveyed on the backs of mules and camels. The French, however, have already diverted their attention to the repairing of the old and the opening of new roads; measures indispensable alike to their own security and the development of the resources of the country. The native weights, measures and money, have been superseded by those of France in commercial matters.

The government of Algeria is at present administered by the commander-in-chief of the French forces in Algeria, who is governor general, and responsible to the French cabinet. There is besides a civil intendant. Previously to 1830, the government was vested in a Dey or Pasha, being the officer at the head of the Turkish soldiery in the Regency. This officer, who exercised absolute power, was appointed for life, but was rarely permitted to die in office. He was drawn out of or rather rose from the army, and any bold and aspiring soldier might be considered as heir apparent to the throne; and with this farther advantage, says Dr. Shaw, he lay under no necessity to wait till sickness or old age had removed the present ruler; it was enough if he could protect himself with the same cimeter which he had the hardihood to sheathe in the breast of his predecessor. The deys notified their accession by an embassy to the Padishah, by whom it was uniformly confirmed; indeed, this was considered as a mere act of deference to him as chief of Islamism, and not as recognizing in him any real supremacy. The deys received no orders from the Porte, but acted in all respects as independent sovereigns. The dey presided in the dewanee or council of state, consisting of 60 old officers and other high functionaries, and which nominally formed the government, but, though formally convened

every Saturday, this body did little but agree to the measures previously decided on by the dey and his favorites. Each of the three provinces into which the region was divided, exclusive of Algiers, over which the dey himself administered affairs, was governed by a bey nominated by the dey, and responsible to him alone. Except, however, in the towns where they were absolute masters and in their immediate vicinities, the Turks had but very limited authority. The Arabs and Berebers, or Kabyles, affected an almost entire independence, obeying only their sheikhs, and frequently committing hostilities on each other. This state of things, indeed, has hitherto been but little changed under the French, and it is easy to perceive that the growth of a regular and efficient system of government can only be gradual, and must principally depend on the spread of agriculture and the more extensive occupation of the country by a settled population. Lately, however, two great steps have been taken; the one the capture of Abd-el-kader, the great hostile chief, and the other the expatriation of a large number of French malcontents—the one will secure peace and the other occupancy, so that it is probable that the colony will rapidly prosper and become an important integral of the young republic.

The revenue of the dey, previous to 1830, is estimated to have amounted to about 2,000,000 francs annually, derived from taxes, monopolies, and the tribute paid by Naples, Portugal, &c., for exemption from piracy. These taxes have been partly retained by the French; but the more oppressive, with the monopolies, have been abolished. Considerable revenue has lately been derived from the sale of the public lands and other property belonging to the state, which are beginning to be purchased and occupied extensively by Europeans. The revenue, in 1837, amounted to 3,039,775 francs; this, however, was but a small item in the expense of maintaining the colony.

The military and naval forces under the deys was never considerable. The regular army amounted to about 10,000 infantry and 6,000 cavalry, but in case of need a considerable irregular force could be mustered in the field. The cavalry chiefly consisted of Arabs and Berebers. The naval force, so long an object of terror to the Christian powers, was nearly annihilated by Lord Exmouth, in 1816. It then consisted of four frigates of 40 or 50 guns, and one of 38, four corvettes, 12 brigs and goellettes, and 30 gun boats. In 1824 their corsairs had again begun to infest the seas, and in 1830, on the capture of Algiers, the French found a large frigate in dock and two others in the port, two corvettes, eight or ten brigs, several xebecs, and thirty-two gun boats. The French have now about 70,000 troops in the colony, exclusive of native allies; but it seems probable that the protection of the colony will not long require this number of regulars, as all the recent emigrants have gone armed, and prepared to do their own fighting.

Justice has been continued by the French, except in political cases, much on the same footing as under the Turkish dominion; being administered by Rabbins among the Jews, and by cadis and other officers, according to the Musselman law, among the Turks, Moors, Arabs, &c. In Algiers justice is administered by a civil court, and a correctional and criminal court, but appeals from these lie to the courts of France. At Bona and Oran there are also French judges, who decide cases under appeal to the courts of Algiers. In their procedure no departure from the French code is permitted.

The religion of the French, and consequently now of the state, is the Roman Catholic; but the great bulk of the people profess Mahomedanism. The negroes, however, are mostly addicted to fetichism, and the creed of

the Berebers is scarcely known, as they suffer no stranger to witness their rites. Since the occupation of the French many good mosques have been converted into Christian churches. Morals are at an extremely low ebb, the inhabitants, particularly the Moors, being in general grossly sensual, debauched and corrupt. Public women are numerous, and syphilitic diseases common and endemic. Drunkenness is not very frequent among the natives, but it is said that the French lose 3,000 or 4,000 annually from excess. In education the Algerines are on a par with the other native states of Barbary. Almost every man knows how to read, write and count, and perhaps as a general thing they are superior in this respect to their conquerors. The French have, however, endeavored to overcome this stigma by the institution of schools for mutual instruction in all their large towns. These are chiefly presided over by Jews; but as yet the system has effected but little, a result probably owing to the hostile feelings which must yet divide the different populations. The language of the country is mostly Arabic, but mixed with Moorish and Phœnician words. The Berebers have a peculiar language, so very poor that it is without conjunctions or abstract terms, and is indebted to the Arabic for those and all the terms of religion, science, &c. In conversing with Europeans a “*lingua franca*” is made use of, being a mixture of Spanish, Italian, French and Portuguese.

Under the deys the regency was divided into four provinces. 1, Al Jesirah or Algiers Proper; 2, Titterie, to the south; 3, Constantina, to the east; and 4, Mascara, to the west: the last three being governed by beys. Until 1848, Titterie was really under the sway of Abd-el-kader, but he having succumbed, the whole may now be said to be occupied by the French. The French have divided the territory into several military governments, of which, those of Algiers, Bona, Oran, Constantina, &c., are those best known; but of these we possess no details.

None of the cities and towns are of much importance. ALGIERS, (Al. Jezirah—the island,) the capital of the regency, and now the capital of the French régime, is situated on the Mediterranean, in  $3^{\circ} 4' 25''$  east longitude. It is built on the slope of a hill which rises 400 feet, the top being occupied by the Kasba, or castle. The streets are very narrow, the widest having been only twelve feet, until the French opened a new one through the city. The houses are in the usual Moslem fashion, all square, with an open court in the middle, and flat roofed, and as they rise in rows above each other on the hill side, there is hardly one that has not a view of the sea. The houses and forts being all whitewashed, the whole appears from a distance as a vast chalk opening in the mountain. The city is well defended on all sides, and contains 153 streets, fourteen blind alleys, and five open places, but with little exception, it is a confused labyrinth of narrow, gloomy and crooked lanes. It is, however, well drained by sewers, and well supplied with water, which is brought by four aqueducts from the hills, and supplies 64 public wells. Before the French conquest there were 13 great mosques with minarets, and 70 small ones. The whole town is a very curious specimen of Arab and Moorish taste in architecture, but a great part of the town has been rebuilt to make room for fine houses, shops and hotels. The harbor is formed by the island from which the city takes its name, and which is now connected with the mainland by a mole. The hills which rise above and around the city are studded with country houses, gardens, vineyards, and olive groves. Algiers has also three madresses for the education of the Moslem priesthood, besides a great number of public schools. A medical school has been established, and a public library, and the “Algerine Moni-

tor" appears once a week. The circuit of the city is little more than two miles: its population has been greatly exaggerated, and some authors have carried the amount to 80,000, and even 200,000. It is probably, however, not more than 24,000, besides the garrison. Algiers was founded A. D. 935, by an Arab chief, named Yussef Zeri. Fourteen miles west from the city is the bay and tower of Sedi Ferrej, or Ferrush, where the French army landed in 1830. The country around Algiers is delightful, and the French have introduced many improvements in fortifications, road-making and public buildings.

CONSTANTINA, (Kostantinah,) a large and very flourishing city, 100 miles east by south of Algiers, occupies an admirable situation, and is defended at all parts by natural position. The greater part of the houses are built from two to five feet above the ground, on large square-cut blocks of dark grey calcareous stones, the remains of ancient buildings, and covered with sloping tiled roofs, which gives the city the appearance of a Spanish rather than a Moslem town. None of the mosques, public buildings, or houses, are remarkable for any beauty or architectural elegance. The bey's new palace, built a few years ago, is large, and, in the interior, very handsome. The city measures 2,700 yards in circuit, and is surrounded by walls built of Roman-wrought stones. The population is about 25,000, or 30,000, a considerable portion of which appears to have been, before the French conquest, very wealthy, and to have indulged in habits of luxury. The city received its present name from Constantine the Great, who rebuilt it on the site of the ancient Cirta, and is celebrated as the capital of ancient Numidia. In order to secure a communication with the coast, a new city, called PHILIPPEVILLE, has been founded on the Bay of Stora, which is rapidly becoming a place of importance.

BONA, (called by the Arabs "Annabah"—place of jubebs,) is situated on the coast, 93 miles N. E. by E. of Constantina, in longitude  $5^{\circ} 24' 38''$  E. The town was destroyed in 1832, but it has been rebuilt in a handsome modern style. About a mile to the south-west are the ruins of the ancient "Hippo," the bishopric of St. Augustine.

ORAN, (Wahran,) is a fortress 240 miles S. W. of Algiers, standing on the slopes of two hills, separated by a green wooded valley, watered by a rapid stream which flows into the sea. It was built by the Spaniards, and is surrounded by strong walls and ditches. The east side is defended by the citadel, two forts, and a lunette; and the valley is commanded on the north side by five strong towers, besides Fort St. Philip. Merchants' vessels anchor before the town. The other towns of Algeria need no description; they are in general small counterparts of those already described.

Throughout Algeria may be found relics of its ancient civilization. Most of the towns and cities bear names little altered from those given them by the Romans. Many ruins remain: those of Tipasa (Tifessad,) stretch for two miles along the coast, and on the brink of the Shelliff, in about the same latitude, there are several classical remains, Corinthian capitals, &c. About 14 miles east of Algiers are the ruins of Rusucurium. At Maliana, north of Shelliff, a stone inserted in a modern wall bears an inscription, whence it has been inferred that it was the place where Pompey's grandson and great-grandson were buried, (see *Mart. Epigr.*, lib. v. ep. 75.) Near Bona are the ruins of Hippo Regius, and many towns can boast of ancient relics in good preservation. The province of Constantina especially abounds with them, and with Roman roads; and even the remote districts of the south have ruinous remains of Roman masonry. Near the capital is a

collection of unhewn stones, somewhat similar to those of Stonehenge, which the French call Druidic, but others believe them to be Phœnician. There are few Christian remains, their buildings having been destroyed by the zeal of the Saracens.

Algiers formed one of the provinces of the Roman Empire, under the name of Numidia; but during the reign of Valentinian III., Count Boniface, the governor of Africa, having revolted, called in the Vandals to his assistance. The latter having taken possession of the country, held it until they were expelled by Belisarius, A. D. 534, who restored Africa to the Eastern Empire. It was conquered by the Saracens in the 7th century, and divided into as many kingdoms as there were lately provinces. In 1504, Ferdinand having driven the Moors from Spain, followed them into Africa, and took possession of Oran, Algiers, and other places. The natives, to throw off the Spanish yoke, had recourse to the famous corsairs, the brothers Aroudj and Khayr-ed-Dyn, better known by the names of Barbarossa I. and II., who had distinguished themselves by the boldness and success of their enterprizes against the Christians. The Spaniards were expelled from all their strongholds, except Oran, which they held to the end of the 18th century. Algiers then became the centre of a new power, and the Barbarossas obtained in 1520, from the Padishah Selim, the title of Dey. Since then its government has been conducted as before described; and has, with few interruptions, carried on almost incessant hostilities against the Christian powers, capturing their ships, and reducing their subjects to slavery. Attempts have been made at different periods to abate this nuisance, and Spain, France, and England, have repeatedly chastised the insolence of these infidels; but the European powers have in general been content to purchase security, rather than by any combined efforts suppress the whole power. In 1815, the Americans, too magnanimous to pay tribute, and too warlike to submit to any depredations, captured a frigate belonging to the dey, who consented to renounce for the future all interference with their shipping; but the most effectual chastisement they received was that inflicted by Lord Exmouth in 1818, when Algiers was bombarded, the dey's fleet totally destroyed, and the dey compelled to conclude a treaty, by which he set all Christian slaves at liberty, and engaged to cease in future reducing Christian captives to that ignominious condition. The last of the Algerine deys got entangled in altercations with the French government, and the dey, in a fit of passion, struck the French consul in the face. Redress was demanded; but instead of complying with the demand, the dey took and demolished the French post at Calle. This was equivalent to a declaration of war, and France determined on being avenged. On the 13th June, 1830, General Bourmont, with 38,000 men, arrived on the Algerine coast, and landed on the following day. Algiers, after a feeble resistance, capitulated on the 5th July, the dey being allowed to retire into Italy, and his troops to go where they pleased. The dey's treasury, when captured, contained in gold and silver an amount equal to 47,639,011 francs, exclusive of stores of various kinds, valued at 7,080,926 francs. Oran and Bona soon after submitted, but the bey of Oran maintained a resistance in the country until 1837. The other provinces successively fell under the French, but not without reverses and protracted warfare. It was, indeed, only in 1848 that the whole country was conquered, and then it was more from the reluctance of the great chief Abd-el-Kader to spill more blood, than from any power the French possessed to carry a victory by military exploits. Abd-el-Kader is now a prisoner of France; but he is so kept in contraven-



tion of his capitulation, and as such remains a monument of French treachery and French disgrace. The nation that would so use a fallen foe, is unworthy of esteem. Besides the recent conquests, France has possessed for four centuries a territory called the "Concessions," extending along the coast from Bougiah to the frontier of Tunis. This has long been used as a station for the coral fisheries of the coast; but it is probably now incorporated with the general affairs of the colony.

#### TUNIS.

TUNIS, (anciently Zeugitania and Bizacium, with a part of Gætulia,) a regency, nominally dependent on the Ottoman Empire, lies immediately on the east of Algiers and along the Mediterranean, between the 7th and 11th meridians of east longitude. It is about 450 miles in length from north to south, and about 150 in breadth, containing an area of 72,000 square miles.

This territory is traversed by several branches of the Atlas, one of which separates it from the "Bilad-ul-Jerid," or country of dates. The south part of the regency is mostly a sandy waste, and some other parts are desert; but many tracts are of the highest fertility, particularly those watered by the Mejerdah. In the south, about 40 miles inland, is the "Sibbah," a remarkable tract 70 miles in length, portions of which formed the Palus Lybiæ, Palus Tritonis, &c., of antiquity. In winter it is covered with water to the depth of two or three feet, but at other times it is a dry plain, the surface being entirely encrusted with salt. About the centre of the lake are the foundations of a circular tower, where caravans halt to feed their camels; and in several parts are elevated plateaux, forming islands in the rainy season, the largest of which, covered with a luxuriant vegetation of date palms, is the "Phla" of Herodotus. The coasts of Tunis are greatly indented by bays; those of Tunis, Hamamet, and the Gulf of Ghabz, being the principal. The principal promontories or head-lands are—the Dakhul, a long tongue of land terminating in Cape Bon, (ancient Prom. Mercurii,) the scene of several events related in the fifth book of the *Æneid*; Cape Serra; Ras-el-Abiad, or the white promontory; Ras-Zibeeb, &c. The shores on the north are frequently bold, but in the south they are low and sandy.

The geology of this country has been little or not at all studied, nor has its mineral resources been turned to profit for many ages. Copper and lead were among the exports of the Carthaginians, and these metals, with silver, are still found in the mountains. The climate is less hot than the position of the country would indicate. At Tunis, the thermometer seldom exceeds 96°, and in winter sinks no lower than 52° Fahr. The rainy season extends from Oct. to May. As early as January the surface is covered with fresh verdure, and the whole of the climate may be said to be healthy, as well as pleasant. The plague, however, is not unfrequent; but this is said to be owing more to the filthiness of the inhabitants, and want of police, than to any defect in the climate. The vegetation and animals are exactly like those of Algeria, and agriculture is in about as poor a condition. The land has been celebrated, through ages, for its fertility; and Tunis was one of the granaries of ancient Rome. Irrigation is, perhaps, more used in Tunis than in any other part of Barbary. Large quantities of fine coral are found round the coasts, which are visited in consequence by Sicilian and Neapolitan fishermen.

The people are of several races, but chiefly similar to those described in previous sections. The population has been very variously estimated; but, perhaps, it may be taken at from two to two and a half millions, of whom, probably, from 7,000 to 10,000 are Turks; about the same number are Christians; 120,000 renegadoes; 100,000 Jews; and the remainder Arabs, Moors, and Berebers—the Arabs being the most numerous.

Manufacturing industry is not a distinguishing feature in the Tunisians. Some silk, woollen and linen fabrics, with leather, &c., are made; but the principal manufactures are soap, and “baretti,” or *red caps of Tunis*, so well known throughout the Mediterranean. Marocco leather is made in considerable quantities, and dyed skins are an article of extensive export.

Tunis is favorably situated for a large commerce with Europe, or as an entrepôt to the central portions of Africa. The commerce with Europe is of some value, but the great bulk is directed inland, and over land to Egypt and Constantinople. The value of this is uncertain; and the only tangible idea we can form of it is derived from a statement made by the French Consul, at Tunis, who estimates the value of exports at 9,406,436 francs annually. The government monopolizes the trade in many articles, as tobacco, wax, wool, and provisions, which it farms out to various individuals.

The government is in the hands of a dey, who, though nominally dependent on the Ottoman Padishah, rules despotically. He receives the *kafan*, with the dignity of a pasha of three tails, from the Padishah. The divan is composed of 37 members, each of whom has a vote in the council; but this body has only a nominal authority. The revenues of the state have been estimated at 24,000,000 piastres, or about \$7,000,000. Its principal sources are the customs, tithes on cultivation, and sale of permits for the exportation of necessities, and the importation of wines and spirits; usury taxes, the beys' domains, the sale of government offices, a poll-tax on the Jews, the traffic in slaves, extortions, and private mercantile speculations.

The armed force consists of about 50,000 men; but of these, 40,000 are contingent, (chiefly cavalry,) furnished by the different Arab tribes. The regular infantry, about 2,000 strong, were originally organized by an English officer. There are about 3,000 Turkish infantry, 2,000 *spahis*, or paid cavalry, and 300 Mamelukes. The latter form a body guard to the bey, and are considered as a sort of nobility or aristocracy. The naval force now consists of only a corvette, a few brigs and schooners, and about 30 gun-boats. Tunis is no longer formidable for piratical expeditions; by treaty with France, in 1830, piracy and Christian slavery were wholly abolished.

TUNIS, (anc. Tunes,) the capital, is a large, but irregularly-built city, with narrow streets, situated on the west side of a shallow gulf, which communicates with the Mediterranean by a narrow entrance, named the “Goleta.” The citadel, named “El-Gaspa,” is on the west side of the city, but is completely commanded by the neighboring heights. The bey's fortified palace, called “El-Bardo,” is about two miles west of the city. The Goleta is well-fortified, having its entrance defended by a castle of the same name; and, besides, from the small depth of the bay or lagoon, indicating nowhere more than a fathom, ships cannot approach the city. Tunis carries on a more extensive trade than any other city of Barbary; its population exceeds 100,000, of whom 80,000 are Jews; and of these about 600 are

tailors, and 1,000 goldsmiths. On the sea-coast, north of the Goleta, and 13 miles north-east of Tunis, is the site of the ancient city of Carthage, of which nothing is left but heaps of stones and remains of walls, with some cisterns and subterranean vaults.

KERWAN, or Kairwan, 80 miles south by east of Tunis, a large town of 60,000 inhabitants, holds the fourth place in point of holiness in the Moslem world; an honor it owes to the circumstance of its containing the tomb of the friend and barber of the prophet! which is placed within a large mosque, said to be supported by 500 granite pillars. Kerwan was long the Metropolis of the Arab Empire in Africa, and the seat of science; but at present it is only famous for its sanctuary, and its shoemakers, whose morocco boots are considered as the best in Barbary. South-east of Kerwan, 30 miles distant, are the remains of a magnificent amphitheatre, still very entire. At a place called El-Jemm, the ancient "Tysdrus;" and at Sfetlah, 85 miles south-west, are the fine ruins of the ancient Sufetula.

KHABZ, Gabs, or Cables, on the south-west shore of the Little Syrtis, at the mouth of a rivulet, the famous "Tritonis" of the ancients, is a large town, with 20,000 or 30,000 inhabitants; but its harbor is now accessible only for small vessels. The other principal places are Sfax, on the south-east coast, with about 14,000 inhabitants; Bizerta, the ancient Hippo Zarytus, with 8,000; Porto Farina, at the mouth of the Mejerdah; Hammamet; Sousa and Mister, on the coast of the Gulf of Hammamet; Ghafsah, Nefta, and Tozer, on the south-west frontier; and Mahadhah on the coast east of Kerwan.

This region, which in ancient times was the centre of the Carthaginian dominions, remained in the possession of the Romans from the destruction of Carthage to the beginning of the fifth century, when the Vandals settled themselves in Africa. In 690 it became subject to the Kalifs; and after belonging to several successive dynasties, was conquered by Barbarossa in 1534. The emperor Charles V., in 1537, took Tunis, and restored the dethroned Muley Hassan; but in 1570 the country was taken anew by the Turks, and it has only gained its independence by the gradual decline of their empire.

#### TRIPOLI.

TRIPOLI, (the Regio Syrtica of the ancients,) the most easterly of the Barbary States, comprises in its territory, exclusive of Tripoli Proper, the district of Barca. It stretches along the coast about 800 miles; but owing to the frequent interruption of the desert, its breadth inland varies greatly: the area, however, is computed at about 100,000 square miles. The population is somewhat less than that of Tunis: in their civilization, pursuits, and industry, the people are on a level with the other Barbary states, and to speak of them would be a useless repetition. The government is in the hands of a bey, or pasha, who rules with despotic sway, and is chosen from among the Turkish officers resident in Tripoli, being confirmed in his authority by a firman from the Turkish padishah. He presides in the divan, and is assisted in his various duties by a "bey commander-in-chief;" an "aga," commanding the Turkish soldiers; the "kaya," or grand judge, who dispenses justice daily at the castle gate of the capital; the chief officers of the treasury and household; the "Sheikh-el-bled," or head police magistrate; the "mufti," or head of the priesthood; the "cadi," or judge in matters of faith, &c. The district governors seem to have powers

equivalent to the bey in their own districts. The revenues are derived from the tribute of the district governors, and the Arab tribes in the interior; taxes on Jews and merchants, confiscations, exactions, pardons, &c. The standing army amounts to 3,000 men; but, in time of war, 10,000 cavalry and 40,000 infantry may be raised by levy. The naval force is insignificant, consisting almost wholly of a few small vessels.

TRIPOLI, the capital, stands on a low neck of land,  $13^{\circ} 13'$  E. longitude, surrounded by an extensive wall; but a large portion of the enclosure is unoccupied. The caravansaries, mosques, bazaars, and better class of houses, are built with stone, and regularly whitewashed twice a year: they are usually two stories high, but not equal to those of the same class either in Tunis or Algiers. The population does not exceed 25,000. Tripoli carries on a considerable trade with the interior of Africa, to which it may be considered as one of the principal shipping ports; and its bey used to exercise considerable influence over Fezzan and the tribes of the adjacent desert. Close to the city is a fine Roman triumphal arch, and other antiquities.

Along the coast, east and west of the city, between the two Syrtes, are the inconsiderable towns of Zoarah, or Ezwarah, Lebidab, (*anc.* Leptis,) Magna and Mesurata, or Misratah.

To the eastward of the Great Syrtis, is the dependent province of Barca, the principal places of which, likewise on the coast, are Bengazi, (*anc.* Berenice;) Teukera and Dalmeta, (*anc.* Ptolemais,) once flourishing towns, but now reduced to insignificance; and Dernah or Beled-al-Sour, the residence of the bey, a town of 4,000 inhabitants, on the north-east coast.

But the most flourishing place in the district is Grennah, or Kuren, (*anc.* Κυρηνή, or Cyrene,) the ruins of which are finely situated on a high table plain, which descends abruptly to the sea by successive stages. The most remarkable of the ruins is the Necropolis, consisting of tombs arranged in terraces along the mountains, and extending a mile and a half along the roads which lead to the city, so as to present the appearance of splendid streets. Kurene was founded by the ancient Greeks, and was for a long time one of their most flourishing colonies, but is now completely deserted. In the southern part of Barca is the district of Augela, with a town of the same name, which derives some importance from its being one of the stages on the great caravan road between Egypt and Fezzan.

In the middle ages, Tripoli generally shared the same fate of the rest of this portion of Africa. In 1522 it was given by the emperor Charles V., who had become possessed of some authority over it, to the knights of Rhodes; but they were driven from it, in 1551, by the Turks. Fezzan was rendered tributary in 1714; but the authority of the bey over that part of the country, or Barca, appears to be little more than nominal, or, at any rate, very much disturbed. Fezzan, indeed, may be considered an independent state. The relations of this country with Turkey are also very equivocal.

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## ES SAHARA, OR THE DESERT.

THE Sahara extends across the breadth of Northern Africa, from the Atlantic Ocean eastward, to the valley of the Nile; and from the Bilad-ul-Jerid southward, to the borders of Soudan; containing within these limits a superficies of about 2,000,000 square miles.

This wide region is covered more or less with quartzose and calcareous sand, though in some places the surface is composed of naked clay or bare rocks. Lakes, strongly saline, also occur, forming the natron and salt lakes mentioned by travellers. Here and there, however, there are found scattered over the surface fertile spots, called wahs or oases, which contain wells of good water, and a considerable share of tropical vegetation; but the greater portion consists of scorching sands, without water, bird or tree, varied only by masses of igneous and other rocks. These wahs are most numerous about the middle of the desert, extending southward from Tripoli to Bornou, and that part of it is most frequented by travellers. To the westward the desert becomes more cheerless and forbidding, the watering places are at a greater distance, and vegetation more scanty; the wells frequently become dry, and men and camels disappointed of water die in hundreds and thousands. The western portion is also more sandy than the middle, and is consequently not only more subject to the fearful simoon, but also to furious tempests of wind, which roll the sands before them like the waves of the sea. To such a degree, indeed, are the sands heated by the unclouded glare of the sun, and to such a fineness are they reduced by constant motion, that the atmosphere becomes filled with their particles; and to a great distance westward in the Atlantic Ocean, ships find their rigging choked up with them. This portion of the desert may be pronounced to be almost tenantless. In other places, where the supply of water and pasturage is more abundant, small parties of Moors and Arabs have taken up their residence, and live in independent poverty, secure from the tyrannical governments of Barbary. But the greater portion of the desert, being entirely destitute of water, is seldom visited by human beings, unless where the trading caravans thread their dreary way across it. In some places, however, the ground is covered with low stunted shrubs, which serve as landmarks for the caravans, and furnish a scanty forage for the camels. Elsewhere the unfortunate wanderer, wherever he turns, sees nothing but a boundless expanse of sand and sky, a gloomy and barren road, where the eye finds nothing to rest upon, and the mind is filled with fearful apprehensions. In the midst of this solitude the traveller sees the carcasses of birds which the violence of the winds has brought from happier regions; and as he ruminates on the fearful length of his remaining journey, listens with horror to the driving blasts, the only sound that breaks upon the silence of the desert.

The only vestiges of animal life in these fearful regions are the antelope and the ostrich, whose swiftness of foot enables them to reach the distant watering places. On the skirts of the desert, where water is more plentiful, are found lions, tigers, panthers, elephants and wild boars; but the only tamed animal that can bear the fatigue of crossing the desert is the camel. The desert is traversed in various directions by numerous routes, varying in length from 30 to 90 days, which terminate at the principal cities and towns of Soudan and Barbary, but deviate from their straight course in several instances, according as trading towns or oases lie nearly in the way.

The Sahara is inhabited by numerous tribes of various lineage, which are scattered in its wahs or fertile spots. The "Moors" occupy the coast of the Atlantic, between Marocco and Senegal, and extend eastward to the limits of the Tuaricks. They are subdivided into a great number of tribes, and consist partly of pure Arabs, and partly of a mixed race, descended of both Arabs and Berebers; most of whom are distinguished for ferocity and love of plunder. The "Tuaricks" are a numerous and warlike people,

who inhabit the middle portions of the Sahara, between Tripoli, Timbuctoo and Bornou, and have from the days of the Carthagenians and Romans furnished conductors to the caravans. They are a fine race, tall, erect and handsome, with an imposing air of self-respect and independence. Their skin is not dark, except where browned by the sun. They derive their subsistence from the pasturage of their flocks, trade and plunder, and hold in contempt those who live in houses or cultivate the ground. They carry on an immense traffic in slaves. They have, however, a peculiar civilization, and use written characters, which they have cut on the dark rocks that chequer their territory. The "Tibboos" are found in the eastern part of the desert, and though different in physiognomy, are nearly as black as negroes. They live on the milk of their camels and the scanty produce of a few fertile spots; to which they add the profits of a little trade, and not unfrequently the plunder of caravans. They are themselves, however, exposed to a mightier race of spoilers, the Tuaricks, who once a year at least make a forage into their territory and carry off everything, without resistance, from the cowardly Tibboos, whose only safety is to ascend certain perpendicular rocks with flat tops, beside which they take care to build their towns. They are, nevertheless, gay and thoughtless, delighting, like other Africans, in the song and the dance. But the Tibboos have not the exclusive possession of the eastern desert; the north, near Barca, is possessed by Arabs, the best known of whom are the Hharabyn and Oulad Ali tribes; and the series of oases along the borders of Egypt are inhabited by Bereber races. To the south also wander several Arab tribes, and to the east the mixed Arab-Bereber tribes of Lawatah and Berdawah. The middle region of the east only, indeed, belongs to the Tibboos.

The Sahara, as already intimated, contains a number of fertile spots or wahs. We have already described those that border on Egypt and acknowledge the supremacy of the Pasha. Of the others, the principal and most important are those of Fezzan, Ghadamis, Asben, Tuat, &c.

FEZZAN lies immediately south of Tripoli, and is a very large oasis, being 300 miles in length by 200 in breadth, but is scarcely distinguished from the desert, as it does not contain a running stream of the least importance. Water, however, is abundant under ground, and by raising it in wells the inhabitants have formed a number of fertile spots in which dates and grain can be reared, and where a few asses and goats, with numerous camels, are fed. The inhabitants chiefly depend on the caravan trade for subsistence, and there are even some extensive native merchants among the Fezzaners. Fezzan contains a population of 70,000, and is governed by a sultan, who is tributary to Tripoli. Its capital is *Mourzouk*, a considerable town. *Germa*, the ancient Roman capital, is now much decayed, but still contains some monuments of its former importance. There are several other towns, and one, *Traghan*, in the south, bordering on the desert, is an industrious place, with a thriving manufactory of carpets. *Sockna*, in the desert, to the north, on the road to Tripoli, forms a great caravan station.

GHADAMIS, an oasis to the north-west of Fezzan, derives some importance from the passage of caravans from Tripoli and Tunis to Timbuctoo, though these are not so considerable as those which pass through Fezzan. The chief town of the same name is occupied by two hostile tribes, each enclosed by a separate wall. Ghadamis and the surrounding villages exhibit many traces of having been occupied by the Romans.

The principal oases belonging to the Tuaricks are: GHAT, whose inhabitants form a sort of oligarchical republic; in its chief town, of the same

name, is held a great annual fair, which is much frequented by the desert tribes; **AHIR**, a large town and fertile oasis but little known; **MABROUK**, small and unimportant; and **ASBEN**, one of the largest, and whose capital, **Aghades**, is said to be as large as Tripoli; it is at least one of the principal commercial marts of the Sahara.

In the western desert are the oases at **Tuat**; **Hoden** or **Wadan**; **Tisheet**; **Taudeny**; **Taghaza**; **Aroan**; and **Gualata** and **Walet**. **TUAT** is inhabited by Arab-Bereber tribes; its chief town is *Aghably*, and it also contains the town of **Ain-el-Ssalah**, visited by Major Laing, and which derives its name from certain holy wells. **HODEN**, **TISHEET** and **TAUDENY** are celebrated for their mines of rock salt. **AROAN** contains a town of 3,000 inhabitants. **GUALATA** and **WALET** are often confounded, though quite distinct; the one being situated on the route between Senegal and Marocco, and the other on the road to Timbuctoo.

The only place of note on the coast is the bay and bank of *Arguin*, to the south of Cape Blanco, containing an island which produces rock salt.

## BILAD-ES-SOUDAN, OR NEGROLAND.

**SOUDAN**, the last and most southern division of the Moghreb of the Arabs, extends from the Atlantic Ocean, eastward to the Region of the Nile, or from 17° W. to 50° E. longitude, and from the borders of the Sahara southward to the Gulf of Guinea, and the chain of mountains which is supposed to extend across the centre of Africa. The region is about 3,000 miles long, and 900 from north to south, varying, however, from the encroachments of the deserts in several parts.

It seems to be divided naturally into three distinct portions, viz:—1. the maritime regions of Guinea and Senegambia; 2. the basin of the river **Kawara** or **Niger**, which may be called “Central Soudan;” and 3. the basin of the great lakes **Tchad** and **Fittre**, eastward to the borders of Nubia and **Kordofan**, to which may be appropriately applied the designation of “Eastern Soudan.” The grand characteristics of the region are one great range of mountains, one great river, and one great lake, so that the physical geography of the country, as far as known, is very simple. For an account of these we refer the reader to our general article on Africa.

The coast of Senegambia is remarkably low, and the same flatness extends from the Senegal to Guinea. Immense forests and a crowded undergrowth overshadow the earth, and the damp mould is perpetually increased in depth by the fall and rot of successive vegetations. The current of the rivers is sluggish, owing to the slight inclination of their channels, which are generally broad and shallow, and often contain bars some way up their streams; mud is deposited profusely on their sloping banks, and favors the multiplication of mangroves. Indeed, the surface continues monotonously flat to the foot of the first hills, which swell at last into the great range of the Mountains of **Kong**. The general appearance of the coast of Guinea from the sea, may be compared, says Mr. Meredith,\* to an immense forest; highlands are seen in different directions, crowned with lofty trees and thick underwood. On a nearer prospect, and on a strict examination, the valleys will be found in many places richly planted; and extensive plains, beautifully studded and

\* Account of the Gold Coast of Africa.

decorated with clumps of trees and bushes, are also to be seen. As we advance into the country, where there is more moisture throughout the year than on the coast, and where the fertility of the soil produces the most vigorous vegetation, the woods are so stopped up by its luxuriance as to be almost impenetrable, and the surface is hid under a covering of shrubs, weeds, and herbs. The rivers are seen winding in different directions, flowing rapidly in some places, and in others forming stagnant pools.

The soil in the vicinity of Sierra Leone consists chiefly of a slight stratum of brown gravel, on a semi-vitrified rock of the same color. On the coast of Guinea, from Cape Palmas to the Volta, the soil within five or six miles from the shore is of a silicious nature, and the clumps of hills which are met with in every direction are composed principally of gneiss and granite. Farther inland the sandy soil becomes more and more mixed with decayed animal and vegetable matter, and in the valleys a rich alluvial soil is met with. Water, also, which on the coast is scarce and brackish, becomes in the interior good and plentiful. Further east the maritime flat country becomes broader than on the Gold Coast, and extremely fertile, terminating at last with the swampy delta of the Kawara, which is profusely covered with dense vegetation.

Of the physical features of the interior of Soudan we are unable to give any general satisfactory account. The western part of the country consists of the basin of the Kawara, bordered on the south and west by mountains, on the north by the desert, and having its eastern boundary formed by a range of hills and high ground, which divide it from the basin of the Tchad. The latter, supported on two sides by mountains, is probably a table-land of considerable elevation, the lowest part of which is occupied by the great lake; but in that respect nothing is positively known. Its elevation, however, is certainly not so considerable as to raise it into the cooler regions of the atmosphere, while its situation, in respect of the desert and the sea, open to the one and secluded from the other, necessarily renders the climate hotter than of the maritime regions farther south, and nearer the equator.

The climate of Soudan, generally, is one of tropical intensity. There are only two seasons, the one of which may be considered as a moderate summer, and the other as a continuance of burning dog-days. During the whole year, the sun at meridian is insupportable. This intensity, however, varies with locality and elevation, but every part is subject at one season or another to tempests, rains, and elemental furies peculiar to equatorial regions; but the earth still prospers, and vegetation is everywhere of the most luxuriant character, while animal life is correspondingly depressed, and extinguished by the most formidable diseases, arising from the decay of the herbs and leaves that everywhere cover the land. Few spots, indeed, enjoy a moderate and agreeable temperature, nor can it be said that either natives or foreigners are free for one day in the year from one nuisance or another.

The natural productions, even as far as known, are very various and valuable. Gold is abundant in many of the streams, and the mountain of Natakou is said to be an almost entire mass of gold, united with earth, iron, and emery. Gold also seems to abound throughout all the mountains of Kong; and a portion of Guinea has been named the Gold Coast, from the abundance of that metal which is, or used to be, brought from the interior. We know also that iron is forged in several places; and no doubt other metals will be found in abundance when the pioneers of civilization shall have succeeded in reaching their localities.

The forests contain cocoa-nut trees, palms, mangoes, bananas, papaws,



citrons, oranges, pomegranates, and sycamores; the locust tree, which yields an agreeable beverage; the shea or butter tree; the tallow tree; the teak, and many others, among which the immense baobab stands pre-eminent. Its fruit, called monkey's bread, affords abundant food for the negroes. Of aromatic plants, are pimento, Spanish pepper, cardamom, and ginger. Cotton, indigo, and valuable gums are supplied to commerce, and alimentary plants, as maize, millet, rice, yams, cassada, potatoes, pulse, plantains, guavas, &c. are met with in great abundance. Tobacco grows everywhere, and the growth of the sugar-cane is spontaneous. The exuberance of the aloe, balsams, lilies, and amaranths, gives the flora of these countries a degree of magnificence which is quite surprising to foreigners. But, perhaps, the most singular feature of the vegetation, is the height to which the Guinea grass grows. This plant forms immense thickets, from ten to thirty feet high, where herds of elephants and boars wander unseen. In the dry season it withers, and then, in order to clear the ground, the natives set it on fire. When kindled, the fire spreads with fearful rapidity, forming by night long lines of light, and by day filling the air with columns of smoke; and it is this practice which appears to furnish the most natural explanation of the "torrents of fire" seen by Hanno, the Carthaginian, in his voyage of discovery.

Elephants, monkeys, antelopes, deer, rats, and squirrels, are, perhaps, more numerous in Soudan than in any other part of the world. The elephant here lives in a state of nature, and is nowhere tamed. The river-horse grows to an immense size; but the rhinoceros is unknown. The lion is here more common than the panther and leopard. The hyæna and jackal prowl among the jungles; the giraffe is found in the deserts; and the zebra, which lives in droves, contributes to the sport of the wild hunters. Monkeys abound in the forests. The most remarkable of these is the chimpanzee, (*Simia-troglodytes*), which, though approximating less in form to the human being than the ourang-outang of the Eastern Archipelago, appears to be more intelligent. It is evidently the connecting link between man and the brute creation. The lemur and the sloth inhabit the western districts, and the boar peoples the marshy forests. The horse and the ass are also found, but they are a degenerate race. The negroes rear bees, buffaloes, sheep, and goats. Birds exist in great numbers, and in boundless variety, and of the most beautiful plumage; and the whole region is infested with noxious and venomous insects and reptiles. Cameleons, crocodiles, lizards, land-crabs, guanas, scorpions, centipedes, and a variety of snakes, some of which are of enormous size, are among the most common. In the forests the termites display their astonishing industry and destructiveness. There are also numerous swarms of wild bees, whose honey and wax are objects of trade among the negroes. The lakes and rivers abound with fish, and the sea yields to the natives a thousand finny treasures. Turtle and oysters are also very abundant.

All the inhabitants of Soudan are of the negro or Æthiopic family, but among them are numerous varieties; some being more or less dark, or making a nearer approach to the Caucasian than others. Of these we must particularly distinguish the "Foulahs," who are widely diffused over Africa. The great majority of the nation is found about the sources of the Gambia and the Rio Grande, but colonies of them are also found about the Senegal and other rivers. There are likewise tribes of them to the south of Fezzan, and on the confines of Bornou, where they are called Fellatahs. They also inhabit Massina and Timbuctoo, on the Kawara, and have established a wide

empire in Haoussa. They have attained to some degree of civilization, and live in cities; and, besides engaging in some of the minor manufactures, they carry on an extensive commerce with the natives of Barbary and the Nile. Frugality and temperance generally prevail among them. They are eloquently expressive, and seem to have a strong feeling of harmony. The women are remarkably industrious and prolific. Those in the interior are all Mahomedans, and the Mandingoes have carried that religion with them even down to the west coast; but the mountains of Kong seem to have formed an insuperable obstacle to the progress of Islam into the maritime regions of Guinea, where Fetichism is the prevalent faith.

### 1.—*Western Soudan.*

The western region of Soudan is commonly divided in Senegambia and Guinea, the dividing line being usually fixed at Cape Mount.

I.—**SENEGAMBIA**, with few unimportant exceptions, is possessed by a number of nations or petty states, all belonging to the three great families of Iolofs, Foulahs, and Mandingoes, who are distinguished by the constitutions and forms of their respective governments. This is everywhere, indeed, monarchical: but is sacerdotal and elective among the Foulahs; hereditary and despotic among the Mandingoes; and mixed and feudal among the Iolofs. But, in the midst of all these states, there exist mercantile villages, which are leagued together for mutual protection. The two principal of these, that of the Serrawollis, and that of the Diolas, have extended their transactions from the coasts far into Soudan, and are indefatigable in carrying on an extensive and varied trade.

The "*Foulah States*" were formerly governed by Saltiques (warriors); but the sovereign power is now in the hands of a religious chief, who, like the Moslem Khalifs, takes the title of "Emir-el-Moumenyn, (commander of the faithful.) He is chosen in each state by a council of kiernoes, or princes, under whose control he is, and can do nothing without their consent. Of the Foulah states, the following are the principal: **FOUTA-TORO**, on the left bank of the Senegal; **BONDOU**, whose capital is Jebané, to the south-east of Fouta-Toro; **FOUTA-JALO**, about the sources of the Senegal, Gambia, Rio Grande, &c.; **KASSO**, south of the Senegal, near the falls of Felou and Gouina; and **FOULADOO**, the principal town of which is Bangassi, the best fortified of all the towns of western Soudan.

The "*Iolof States*" are governed by princes whose titles vary in each; the crown, however, always descends hereditarily in the same family. The principal states are as follow: **WALLO**, the king of which is called "Brak," is situated near the mouth of the Senegal, and is completely under the influence of the French. **KAYOR**, whose king is entitled "Damel," is one of the most considerable states, extending south from the Senegal to beyond Cape Verde; **BAOL**, whose king is entitled "Teyn," and whose capital is Lambaye; and **SYN**, to the south of Baol, whose king's title is "Bour." Iolof itself, properly so called, formerly the nucleus of a considerable state, but now much reduced, and of which all the other Iolof states are only dismembered portions, is governed by a "Bour," who resides at Warghoh, east of Cape Verde. The country contains vast forests of gum-trees, particularly of gum-copal: it produces also an abundance of ivory, skins, and honey.

**SALUM**, which is partly Iolof, and partly Mandingo, is situated on the northern bank of the Gambia.

The "*Mandingo States*" appear to form bodies politic less homogeneous than those of the Foutahs and Iolofs. The principal are KAARTA, BAMBOUK, DENTILIA, TENDA, WOOLLI, YANI, KABOO, BIAFRAS, FOUINI, &c. Of these little is known but their names.

The "*Indigenous States of Senegambia*" are:—GALAM, or Kayaga, which belongs to the Serrawollis; and JALLONKADOO, the last remaining possession of the independent Jallonkas. It is a country covered with forests, and almost a perfect wilderness, watered by the upper branches of the Senegal. Farther south, along the coast, are:—TIMMANI, SOULIMANA, and the KINGDOM OF CAPE MOUNT. Soulimana is the most civilized state in the neighborhood of Sierra Leone. Falaba, a town of 6,000 inhabitants, is the residence of the king. Couscea, near the source of Cape Mount River, is the capital of the Kingdom of Cape Mount, and has a population of 15,000 or 20,000.

Along the coast are several European settlements. Those of the French are situated on the Senegal, and along the coast between the desert and the Gambia; the Portuguese stations are between the Gambia and Sierra Leone, and the British at Sierra Leone, the Isles de Los, &c.

The "*French Possessions*" are divided into the two arrondissements of St. Louis and Goree; the former, comprising the Island of St. Louis, &c., on the Senegal, and the different factories along the river, and also part of the sea-coast; and the latter, comprising the Island of Goree and the coast from the Bay of Yof to the mouth of the Gambia. The capital of the French possessions is St. Louis, a well-built town, on an island in the Senegal, near its mouth. It is the entrepôt of the trade of that river, the principal article of which is gum. It contains about 6,000 inhabitants. Goree is a small town, with about 3,000 inhabitants, built on a small island or rock of the same name, on the south side of Cape Verde. Bakel, on the Senegal, in Bondou, is a small town, garrisoned by the French. Dagano, Makana, &c., are also occupied by the French as trading-posts. Portendik, on the coast, 170 miles north of the Senegal, in the neighborhood of which are large gum forests, is only inhabited at the season for selling gum to the European traders.

The "*Portuguese Settlements*" comprise only the small places or stations of Cachao, Bissao, Zingichor, Farim, and Geba, all in the vicinity of the Rio Grande and Casamanza rivers, and San Domingo on the Rio Pongo. Cachao, a small town, with a harbor, and 500 inhabitants, is the residence of the governor.

The "*British Settlements*" are those of Sierra Leone, the Isles de Los, and the Gambia. SIERRA LEONE is a peninsula, extending from the estuary of Sierra Leone to Yawry Bay, presenting an irregular mass of peaked mountains, with valleys and prairies lying between them. The mountains are covered to their very summits with forests, which gives the scenery a beautiful, rich, and romantic appearance. The river, which forms its eastern boundary, is a noble estuary, extending 20 miles inland, varying in width from ten miles, at its entrance, to four, where it terminates. The settlement was first formed in 1789. It has been largely colonized by Maroons and Negroes, from America and the West Indies, and by captured slaves. In 1836, it contained 37,463 inhabitants. Throughout the peninsula there are several villages; but the capital is Freetown, at the northern extremity, a well-built place, with regular and spacious streets. It is very unhealthy, and has long been styled the "white man's grave."

The ISLES DE LOS, in north latitude 9° 16', and west longitude 16°, five

in number, are very valuable as a station for the trade which is carried on with the rivers of the adjacent continent, consisting in exchange of British goods for hides, ivory, gold dust, &c.

The GAMBIA SETTLEMENTS consist of several stations on the islands in that river, the principal of which is St. Mary's Island at its mouth, and on which is the town of *Bathurst*. These stations extend for a distance of 300 miles up the river.

Full descriptions of these several colonies, with the details of their trade, &c., will be found in Martin's *Hist. of the Col. of the Brit. Emp.* London, 1843.

II. GUINEA, the southern portion of Western Soudan, has been visited by Europeans ever since the middle of the 15th century, and has been generally divided by geographers into four great regions, named from the principal articles which they produce. These are—1st. The "Grain Coast," so called from its producing the malaghetta, a species of pepper, extending from Cape Mount to Cape Palmas. 2d. The "Ivory Coast," extending from Cape Palmas to Cape Apollonia. 3d. The "Gold Coast," extending thence to the Rio Volta, and which was long the most frequented by European traders, not only for gold, but also for slaves; and 4th. The "Slave Coast," which includes the remainder of Guinea eastward of the Volta.

The principal *native states* are those of Ashantee, Dahomey, Aardrah, Badagry, Lagos, &c.

ASHANTEE is a powerful empire, extending along the coast from the river St. Andrew, 6° W., to Popo, a dependency of Dahomey, about 1° E. longitude, or altogether about 480 miles, and comprising in its limits a number of petty states, tribes and nations, formerly independent. The Ashantees themselves amount to about one million of people, inhabiting Ashantee Proper, a territory of 14,000 square miles, inland from the Gold Coast. They are a very superior class of negroes, and manufacture excellent cotton cloth, smelt metals and build large houses. The country is governed by a king aided by four chiefs and counsellors. His majesty's legal allowance of wives is only 4,000! and polygamy is carried on to an abominable extent among his subjects. They are a brave but savage people; they sacrifice whole hecatombs of human victims to propitiate the spirits of their ancestors; and on the death of any of the royal family thousands are slain to attend him in the future world. *Commassie*, the capital, is a large town with regular streets. In the centre is the palace. The peace of the city is preserved by a strict police. Commassee is the centre of a great trade, carried on not only with other parts of the empire, but also with Timbuctoo and Kashena in Central Soudan. Its permanent population is about 15,000, but on great festivals sometimes 100,000 are assembled. The other principal places are St. Andrew's, Cape Lahou, Grand Bassam and Accra, on or near the coast. In the interior are Abbradie, Dankara, Kickiwherry, Coranza, Diabbie, Sallagha, Yandi, &c. These towns are generally capitals of small tributary states, in most cases of the same name, and their inhabitants are variously employed in manufactures or trade. Some are places of commercial importance, and centres of the gold and slave exporting business.

DAHOMEY is a kingdom extending from the eastern frontier of Ashantee to the frontier of Yarriba. It contains a number of large and populous villages. The principal towns are *Abomey* the capital, about 80 miles from the coast, a well built town with 24,000 inhabitants; *Calmina*, the usual

residence of the king, where he has two palaces or country houses ; *Whydah*, Gregoy, Grand-Popo, &c. The kings of Dahomey have been long famous for their ferocity ; Mr. Dalzell, who paid one of them a visit at the end of the last century, found the road to the royal cottage strewn with human skulls, and the walls adorned or almost covered with jaw bones. His government is the most rigorous despotism, the lives and properties of his subjects being entirely at his disposal.

ARDRAH, a kingdom formerly tributary to Dahomey, but now belonging to Yarriba, is situated on the coast to the south-east of Dahomey. Its capital, *Alladu*, is a well-built and commercial town, with 20,000 inhabitants. The kingdom of BADAGRY is a very small state, whose capital, of the same name, is the place where several European travellers have landed on their way to the interior. LAGOS, or Awane, is a small state at the mouth of the river Lagos. Its capital has become noted as one of the largest slave markets of Guinea. It is built on a small island at the entrance of Cradao Lake, which extends about 70 miles parallel to the sea, from which it is separated by a narrow bank, and communicates with the river of Benin.

The British have settlements on this coast also, as well as the Dutch. The American negro settlement of Liberia occupies the south-west coast on the Atlantic. These will now be glanced at.

The "*British Settlements*" are DIX COVE, SUCUNDEE, COMENDA, CAPE COAST CASTLE, ANNAMABOO, TANTUM, WINNEBAH, and ACCRA. These were formerly in the possession of the African Company, and afterwards taken under the immediate charge of the crown, but were again, in 1828, released to the company. The business in London is managed by a committee of three merchants, appointed by the government, and accountable to the Secretary of State. The forts are governed by a president and council. CAPE COAST CASTLE stands on a rock of gneiss and mica slate, about 20 feet above the level of the sea, in longitude  $1^{\circ} 10' W.$  ; it is an irregular square with a bastion at each corner, the whole mounting 80 guns. Within are spacious buildings for the accommodation of the residents. Outside there is a native town ; and the adjacent country, to a considerable distance, has been cleared and rendered fit for cultivation. The ruling natives are the Fantees, a clever, stirring, turbulent race. It was here that L. E. L., the celebrated poetess and unfortunate wife of Sir Charles McLean, the governor, lost her life by poison ; it is strongly suspected that the husband was accessory at least to the foul deed, and certainly many circumstances have been adduced which go far to prove his guilt. The other stations require no separate notice. The trade of these settlements, and generally of Western Africa, is of considerable importance to Great Britain, and is yearly increasing. The exports alone amount to the value of £300,000 yearly.

The "*Dutch Settlements*" consist of FORT ANTONIUS, near Axim, and FORT HOLLANDIA or Fredericksburg, near Pockese, with several others. The principal settlement is ELMINA, or St. George de la Mina, which is the residence of the governor-general. It is a well-built town, with a good citadel and a fort. Some considerable trade is connected with these, and the Dutch are ever pushing forward their interests in this quarter.

The "*Danish Settlements*" consist of CHRISTIANBORG, two and a half miles from James' Fort, at Accra, and several other stations, forts, and factories along the coast.

The original American colony of Liberia has lately declared itself an independent nation, and as such will require to be described under the style and title of—

## THE REPUBLIC OF LIBERIA.

THE Republic of Liberia lies midway between Sierra Leone and Cape Palmas, and was originally a colony planted by the American Colonization Society in 1821. Its specific limits are from Digby, on the mouth of Poor River, on the north-west, to Cavally River on the south-east, or between  $4^{\circ} 20'$  and  $6^{\circ} 40'$  N. latitude, and  $7^{\circ} 30'$  and  $11^{\circ}$  W. longitude. The length of the coast between Digby and the Cavally river is about 300 miles, and the territory extends from 70 to 80 miles inland, with a probable area of 24,000 square miles.

The whole territory has been purchased from time to time from the aboriginal owners, and in this way at least twenty petty sovereignties have been extinguished. In its former condition the coast was the constant resort of slavers, but the traffic is now effectually suppressed as far as the jurisdiction of the republic extends, and its entire abandonment is an invariable stipulation in every treaty of trade and protection with neighboring states. The disposition to avail themselves of treaties of this description is plainly on the increase on the part of the surrounding natives, and it is estimated that not less than 2,000,000 of persons in the interior are under the influence of these stipulations.

The geographical position of Liberia, and its capacity to produce many articles likely to make up a valuable commerce, are very favorable to the success of the republic; nor can it be looked upon in a minor degree as a centre from which civilization may diverge, and include in its bands many thousands of human beings now steeped in the most revolting barbarism. It is, indeed, a well ascertained fact, that it has already effected much in mitigating the horrors of the slave trade, and in abolishing many of the dreadful practices of the Fetichist natives. At the same time nothing is left undone to spread Christian doctrines and morality, and that continent which has so long been robbed and ravaged by our sires, even now smiles and rejoices in the light shed upon it by the sons of those exiles returned from their captivity. It seems indeed, that it has been among the dispensations of Providence to permit the wrongs under which Africa has suffered, that her children might be returned to their original home, civilized and imbued with the benign spirit of Christianity, and prepared ultimately to redeem this great continent from barbarism and idolatry.

The colony was originally established in 1821, by an immigration of free or liberated people of color from the United States, under the auspices of the American Colonization Society. Since that period its population, including the Aborigines, who have incorporated themselves with the immigrants, has increased to upwards of 80,000. The proportion of the population born in America or of American descent, is estimated at about 10,000; and such has been the effect of their example and influence, that out of the remaining 70,000, consisting of aborigines or of captives released from slave-ships, at least 50,000 can speak the English language, while their habits are rapidly becoming those of civilized and steady agriculturists. The desire for education is also manifested by the surrounding tribes, and instances are not uncommon of natives sending their children to be instructed in the primary schools established in the republic. Of these there are 36 in operation, with an average attendance in each of about 40 native pupils.

The natural resources of Liberia are immense, and are steadily in process of development. The principal articles of export are ivory, palm oil, (of

which \$150,000 worth was shipped in 1847,) camwood, gold-dust, &c.; coffee is indigenous and of excellent quality, and is now being cultivated extensively; it yields more than in the West Indies, and the belief is entertained that it may be produced so as to compete with the slave-grown article. Sugar also thrives well, but enough only is grown for home consumption. Cocoa has just been introduced, and it is expected that cotton will soon become an article of export. Indigo, ginger, arrowroot, and various other articles of commerce likewise grow luxuriantly. Rich mines exist in the country, and only require capital to open them up. In 1847 eighty-two foreign vessels visited Liberia, and exchanged merchandize for articles of African production, to the amount of \$600,000; and it is estimated that between two and three millions of persons in the interior now obtain their supply of European goods from the republic and the kindred colony of Cape Palmas. The principal trade is carried on by barter; but there is a small paper circulation of about \$6,000 redeemable on demand.

The population is, on the whole, well disposed to work, and the rate of wages per day is about 25 cents. It is an extraordinary feature of this part of the coast that horses and other draught animals will not live, and hence every kind of transport, except that upon the rivers, is performed by manual labor. Much of the camwood which is exported from Liberia is brought a distance of 200 miles from the interior on men's backs. It is seen, however, that this difficulty, which appears a great one at first, may have the effect not only of enuring the people to labor, but of stimulating them to every kind of mechanical contrivance, by which it may be overcome.

The climate of Liberia, although more healthy than that of Sierra Leone, is still uncongenial to the white man; but the improvement that it has undergone during the last ten years from the effect of clearing, drainage, &c., is stated to have been most remarkable. The colored emigrants from America, who used invariably to suffer from fever on their arrival, are now able to go to work at once. The duration of life amongst the colonists is considered to be about the same as in the United States. A large portion of the territory has been accurately surveyed, and it is sold in sections by the government at from 50 cents to \$1 per acre. The settlements have already spread over a large area, and the result of their industry has been very encouraging to further efforts.

The government of the republic is precisely on the American model, consisting of a president, a vice president, a senate and house of representatives, the number of senators being six and that of delegates twenty-eight. The possession of real estate to the value of \$30 is the electoral qualification. The revenue in 1847 was about \$20,000, derived entirely from an *ad valorem* duty of six per cent., on imports and the sale of public lands. Ardent spirits, the use of which it is sought to discourage, form an exception, and are taxed 25 cents per gallon.

MONROVIA, on the south side of Cape Mesurado, near the north-western boundary of Liberia, is the capital and chief seat of trade. It contains about 1,000 inhabitants. The other ports are Marshall, on Junk river; Edina; Bexley, on St. John's river; Bassa Cove and Greenville, on the Sinoe river. The more inland towns and their adjoining settlements are Caldwell, New Georgia and Millsburg.

The organization of the republic as an independent state took place on the 24th August, 1847, when Mr. Roberts, who had for a long time been governor of the colony under the auspices of the society, and himself an immigrant, was elected president. Since this period the president has

visited the United States and England, in both which he was received as the representative of a respectable nation, and obtained from their governments a recognition of the nationality of the republic. His mission also extended to other countries, and hitherto he has met with nothing but courtesy and success in his diplomatic tour.

We cannot better conclude this article, than by appending to it an address from the colonists of Liberia to the free people of color in the United States, dated 4th September, 1847. It contains much valuable information, both with respect to the country and the condition of the people; and must be especially interesting to a numerous class who are favorable to the cause which it advocates:

“As much speculation and uncertainty continues to prevail among the people of color in the United States, respecting our situation and prospects in Africa, and many representations have been put in circulation there, of a nature slanderous to *us*, and, in their effects, injurious to *them*, we feel it our duty, by a true statement of our circumstances, to endeavor to correct them.

“The first consideration which caused our voluntary removal to this country, and the object which we still regard with the deepest concern, is liberty—liberty in the sober, simple, but complete sense of the word: not a licentious liberty, nor a liberty without government, or which should place us without the restraint of salutary laws; but that liberty of speech and conscience which distinguishes the free enfranchised citizens of a free state. We did not enjoy that freedom in our native country; and from causes which, as respects ourselves, we shall soon forget forever, we were certain it was not there attainable for ourselves or our children. This, then, being the first object of our pursuit in coming to Africa, is probably the first subject on which you will ask for information; and we must truly declare to you that our expectations and hopes, in this respect, have been realized. Our constitution secures to us, so far as our condition allows, ‘all the rights and privileges enjoyed by the citizens of the United States,’ and these rights and privileges are ours. We are proprietors of the soil we live on, and possess the rights of freeholders. Our suffrages, and what is of more importance, our sentiments and our opinions, have their due weight in the government we live under. Our laws are altogether our own; they grow out of our circumstances, are framed for our exclusive benefit, and administered by officers of our own appointment, and as such possess our confidence. We have a judiciary chosen from among ourselves; we serve as jurors in the trial of others, and are liable to be tried only by juries of our fellow-citizens ourselves. We have all that is meant by *liberty of conscience*. The time and mode of worshipping God, as prescribed to us in His word, and dictated by our conscience, we are not only free to follow, but are protected in following.

Forming a community of our own in the land of our forefathers; having the commerce, and the soil, and the resources of the country at our disposal, we know nothing of that debasing inferiority with which our very color stamped us in America. There is nothing here to create the feeling of caste—nothing to cherish the feeling of superiority in the minds of foreigners who visit us. It is this moral emancipation, this liberty of the mind from worse than iron fetters, that repays us ten thousand times over for all that it has cost us, and makes us grateful to God and our American patrons for the happy change which has taken place in our situation. We are not self-complacent as to rest satisfied with our improvement, either as regards



our minds or our circumstances. We do not expect to remain stationary—far from it. But we certainly feel ourselves, for the first time, in a state to enjoy either to any purpose. The burden is gone from our shoulders. We now breathe and move freely, and know not (in surveying your present state,) for which to pity you most, the empty name of liberty which you endeavor to content yourselves with, in a country that is not yours, or the delusion which makes you hope for ampler privileges in that country hereafter. Tell us which is the white man, who, with a prudent regard for his own character, can associate with one of you on terms of equality? Ask us, which is the white man, who would decline such association with one of our number, whose intellectual and moral qualities are not an objection? To both these questions, we unhesitatingly make the same answer—there is no such white man.

We solicit none of you to emigrate to this country; for we know not who among you prefers rational independence, and the honest respect of his fellow-men, to that mental sloth and careless poverty which you already possess, and your children will inherit after you in America. But if your views and aspirations rise a degree higher—if your minds are not as servile as your present condition, we can decide the question at once; and with confidence say that you will bless the day, and your children after you, when you determined to become citizens of Liberia.

But we do not hold this language on the blessings of liberty for the purpose of consoling ourselves for the sacrifice of health, or the sufferings of want, in consequence of our removal to Africa. We enjoy health, after a few month's residence in this country, as uniformly and in as perfect a degree as we possessed that blessing in our native country; and a distressing scarcity of provisions, or any of the necessities of life, has of late been entirely unknown, even to the poorest persons in this community. On these points there are, and have been, much misconception and some malicious misrepresentations in the United States.

The true character of the African climate is not well understood in other countries. Its inhabitants are as robust, as healthy, as long-lived, to say the least, as those of any other country. Nothing like an epidemic has ever appeared in this colony; nor can we learn from the natives, that the calamity of a sweeping sickness ever yet visited this part of the continent. But the change from a temperate to a tropical country is a great one—too great not to affect the health more or less, and in the cases of old people, and very young people, it often causes death. In the early years of the colony, want of good houses, the great fatigues and dangers of the settlers, their irregular mode of living, and the hardships and discouragements they met with, greatly helped the other causes of sickness, which prevailed to an alarming extent, and were attended with great mortality. But we look back to those times as a season of trial long past, and nearly forgotten. Our houses and circumstances are now comfortable; and for the last two or three years not one person in forty, from the middle and southern states, has died from the change of climate.

But you may say that even health and freedom, as good as they are, are still dearly paid for, when they cost you the common blessings of life, and expose your wife and children to famine, and all the evils of want and poverty. We do not dispute the soundness of this conclusion either; but we utterly deny that it has any application to the people of Liberia.

Away with all the false notions that are circulating about the barrenness of this country; they are the observations of such ignorant and designing

men as would injure both it and you. A more fertile soil, and a more productive country, so far as it is cultivated, there is not, we believe, on the face of the earth. Its hills and its plains are covered with a verdure which never fades; the productions of nature keep on in their growth through all the seasons of the year. Even the natives of the country, almost without farming tools, without skill, and with very little labor, make more grain and vegetables than they can consume, and often more than they can sell.

Cattle, swine, fowls, ducks, goats, and sheep, thrive without feeding, requiring no care but to keep them from straying. Cotton, coffee, indigo, and the sugar-cane, are all the spontaneous growth of our forests, and may be cultivated at pleasure, to any extent, by such as are disposed. The same may be said of rice, Indian corn, Guinea corn, millet, and too many species of fruit to enumerate. Add to all this, we have no dreary winter here, for one-half the year, to destroy the products of the other half. Nature is constantly renewing herself, and is also constantly pouring her treasures all the year round, in the laps of the industrious. We could say on this subject more, but we are afraid of exciting too highly the hopes of the imprudent. Such persons, we think, will do well to keep their rented cellars, and earn their twenty-five cents a day at their wheelbarrow, in the commercial towns of America, and stay where they are. It is only the industrious and virtuous that we can point to independence, and plenty, and happiness in this country. Such people are sure to attain, in a very few years, to a style of comfortable living which they may in vain hope for in the United States; and however short we come of this character ourselves, it is only a due acknowledgment of the bounty of Divine Providence to say that we generally enjoy the good things of this life to our entire satisfaction.

Our trade is chiefly confined to the coast, to the interior parts of the continent, and to foreign vessels. It is already valuable, and fast increasing. It is carried on in the productions of the country, consisting of rice, palm oil, ivory, tortoise shell, dye woods, gold, hides, wax, and a small amount of coffee; and it brings us, in return, the product and manufactures of the four quarters of the world. Seldom, indeed, is our harbor clear of European or American shipping; and the bustle and the thronging of our streets show something already of the activity of the smaller sea-ports of the United States.

Mechanics, of nearly every trade, are carrying on their various occupations; their wages are high; and a large number would be sure of constant and profitable employment.

Not a child or a youth in the colony but is provided an appropriate school. We have a numerous public library, and a court house, meeting-houses, school-houses, and fortifications sufficient, or nearly so, for the colony, in its present state.

Our houses are constructed of the same materials, and finished in the same style, as in the towns of America. We have an abundance of good building stone, shells for lime, and clay of an excellent quality for bricks. Timber is plentiful of various kinds, and fit for all the different purposes of building and fencing.

Truly, we have a goodly heritage; and if there is anything lacking in the character or condition of the people of this colony, it can never be charged to the account of the country; it must be the fruit of our own mismanagement, or slothfulness, or vices. But from all these evils we confide in Him, to whom we are indebted for all our blessings, to preserve us. It is the topic of our weekly and daily thanksgiving to Almighty God, both in public

and private, and He knows with what sincerity, that we were conducted, by His providence, to this shore. Such great favors, in so short a time, and mixed with so few trials, are to be ascribed to nothing but His special blessing. This we acknowledge. We only want the gratitude which such signal favors call for. Nor are we willing to close this paper, without adding a heartfelt testimonial to the deep obligations we owe to our American patrons and best earthly benefactors, whose wisdom pointed us to this home of our nation, and whose active and persevering benevolence enabled us to reach it. Judge, then, of the feelings with which we hear the motives and doings of the Colonization Society traduced—and that, too, by men too ignorant to know what the society has already accomplished; too weak to look through its plans and intentions; or too dishonest to acknowledge either. But, without pretending to any prophetic sagacity, we can certainly predict to that Society the ultimate triumph of their hopes and labors; and disappointment and defeat to those who oppose them. Men may theorise and speculate upon their plans in America, but there can be no speculation here. The cheerful abodes of civilization and happiness which are spreading over this verdant mountain—the flourishing settlements which are spreading around it—the sound of Christian instruction, and scenes of Christian worship, which are heard and seen in this land of brooding pagan darkness—a thousand contented freemen united in founding a new Christian empire, happy themselves, and the instrument of happiness to others—every object, every individual, is an argument, is a demonstration, of the wisdom and goodness of the plan of colonization.”

The “Maryland Colony,” at Cape Palmas, is in every respect a similar institution with Liberia; but under a different management. It is still in dependence on its original patrons, and its affairs are under the supervision of Governor Russworm, a very intelligent and humane man of color, sent out by the Maryland Society. The colony is equally prosperous; and there seems to be little doubt of its soon becoming a portion of the young republic. Speaking of the qualifications of Roberts and Russworm, Commodore Perry, of the United States Navy, says, in a report to the American Government, dated in 1844 :—

“Governor Roberts of Liberia, and Russworm, of Cape Palmas, are intelligent and estimable men, executing their responsible functions with wisdom and dignity; and we have in the example of these two gentlemen, irrefragable proof of the capacity of colored people to govern themselves.”

And with regard to the advantages of the colonists he adds :—

“So far as the influence of the colonists has extended, it has been exerted to suppress the slave-trade. Their endeavors have been eminently successful, and it is by planting these settlements (whether American or European) along the whole extent of coast, from Cape Verde to Benguela, that the exportation of slaves will be most effectually prevented.”

## 2.—*Central Soudan*

Central Soudan is chiefly comprised in the basin of the Káwara, and in point of fertility, is not surpassed by any other portion of the world. Its agricultural staples, its minerals and animal products supply the wants of an immense commerce, which is carried on with the states of Barbary and the west coast, by caravans, and small craft on the rivers flowing to the Atlantic. Very little, however, is known of the region; and that which is known chiefly applies to the more frequented trading stations. The country

is occupied by an infinite number of petty states, the most powerful of which alone we need only in this connection remark upon. They are as follows:—

**SANGARAN** is a large country, containing the sources of the Joliba, inhabited by a race of idolaters governed by independent chiefs.

**BOURE** is a hilly region, with rich gold mines, on the Tankesso, an affluent of the Joliba. It is inhabited by the Jalonkes, and governed by a Moslem chief. It has a great trade both with the interior and the coasts. *Boure*, its capital, is situated on the left of the river.

**KANKAN**, to the north of Sangaran, on the Milo, is a small state, the capital of which, of the same name, contains 6,000 inhabitants, all Moslems.

**WASSOULO**, to the north of Kankan, is inhabited by Foulahs, who pursue sheep-tending and agriculture. The small village of *Sigala* is the residence of the chief, who has large possessions of gold and silver.

**BAMBARRA**, formerly a large state, is now divided into two governments, which may be styled Upper and Lower Bambarra. In Upper Bambarra are the towns of *Sego*, with 3,000 inhabitants; *Bammakoo*, a commercial town further up the Joliba; *Marabou*, *Yamma*, *Sami*, *Sansanding*, and *Silla*. In the lower kingdom, which is now the principal power in Central Soudan, are *Jenneh*, its capital, a large well-built town, at the end of a small island in the Joliba, and the seat of a great trade; *El-Khamdo-Illah*, 80 miles north-east of Jenneh, so famous for its schools; and *Isaka*, at the confluence of two branches of the Joliba, and the port of embarkation of travellers to Timbuctoo. **MASSINA**, on the Joliba, is the capital of a kingdom governed by the brother of the chief of Jenneh.

The kingdom of **KONG**, noted for the industry of its inhabitants, lies to the south of Bambarra, among the mountains, to which it gives its name. Its capital has the same name. Further down the river is the state of **BANAN**, inhabited by a commercial people resembling the Mandingoes. The country of the **DIRIMANS** extends along the right bank of the Joliba; its chief resides at Alcodia.

**TIMBUCTOO** is perhaps the most noted of the Soudan States. It lies north of the Joliba, and is the centre of the caravan road from Barbary. The city is a large, open town, three miles in circuit, situated in a sandy plain, eight miles north of the river. The houses are mostly built of brick; but the streets are only wide enough for three horsemen to ride abreast. It contains seven mosques. The port is at Cabra, a small town on the Joliba. Timbuctoo may be considered as the principal mart of this part of Africa. The chief pays tribute to the Tuaricks of the desert, to prevent them from plundering the caravans.

**BORGOU**, chiefly to the right of the Kawara, is a confederation of several petty kings, the most powerful of whom are those of Wawa, Kiama, Niki, and Boussa. The capital is *Boussa*, on the left bank of the Kawara, with about 12,000 inhabitants. *Kiami*, the residence of a sultan, appears to be the most commercial and populous town of Borgou, and contains so many as 30,000 inhabitants; and *Wawa*, one of the finest towns in the country, has 18,000 inhabitants.

The following will exhibit a list of the states lower down the basin, with their principal towns.

<i>States.</i>	<i>Chief Towns, &amp;c.</i>
YAOURI, (kingdom) .....	Yaouri, a populous and commercial town.
NYFFE, OF TAPPA.....	{ Tabra, 20,000; Koulfou, 15,000; Rabba, 9,000; and Egga, 11,000.
YARRIBA.....	{ Katunga, 60,000; Bohou, Daffou, Jannah, Chaki and Kouso.
FUNDAH, OF FOUNDA.....	Fundah, 60,000; Yimahah, &c.
BENIN, OF ADOU.....	Benin, 15,000.
WARI.....	Wari, 5,000.
BONNY, (an oligarchical republic).....	Bonny, 20,000; Brass, 2,000.
QUA, (kingdom).....	Old Calebar
IBOU, (kingdom) .....	Eboo, 6,000.

*Boqua, Bockwey, or Iccory*, on the left bank of the Kawara, immediately below the hills, is a sort of free port or neutral place, where the people of hostile states may meet without danger. The above enumeration, however, contains but a few of the states in this section of Soudan; but we have probably said enough on a subject, in the illustration of which, nothing more than names can be produced.

THE EMPIRE OF THE FOULAHS OR FELLATAHS, belongs partly to the basin of the Kawara and partly to the basin of the Tchad. It was founded by Sheikh Othman Danfodio, who was a proficient in all the learning of the Arabs, and enjoyed the reputation of being a prophet. He came originally from the woods of Ader or Tadela, and having settled in Ghoover, built a town, where the Fellatahs soon began to collect around him. Driven from it by the Sultan, he again settled in Ader, where he built another town; from all quarters the Fellatahs flocked to his standard, and in a short time he acquired possession of the whole of Haoussa, with Kano Kubbe, Youari, and part of Nyffe, and extended his ravages almost to the sea-coast. He died in 1816, when his son Bello succeeded to the government of Haoussa, while the conquered territories to the westward were given to his nephew. *Sakkatoo*, the capital, is a large city, on a low hill near an affluent of the Kawara, about four days' journey from the great river. It was built in 1805, by Danfodio, and has been surrounded by Bello with a wall 24 feet high, and a dry ditch. Its population is estimated at 80,000. The other chief towns, &c., are *Kashenah, Cassina, Kashna, Kalawawa, Zirmi, Zariya*, with 50,000 inhabitants; *Magaria Kano*, with 40,000 inhabitants; *Bæbæbie*, with 23,000 inhabitants; *Kotonko, Zangæia, Katagoun, &c.*

### 3.—*Eastern Soudan.*

This region includes the basin of the Tchad, and extends eastward to the confines of Nubia and Abyssinia. It is almost entirely unknown, and has never been traversed by any intelligent explorer. The principal states of this division are:

BORNOU, situated along the sides of the great lake. This state seems to consist of "Bornou Proper," to the west of the lake; "Kamen," to the north and east; "Loggun," to the south; a part of "Mandara," to the south of Loggun; and a part of the country of the Mungas or Mungowi, to the north of the Yeou. The capital is *Birnie*, or New Bornou, a walled town, with 15,000 inhabitants, not far from the Tchad. *Kouka, Angornou, Digoa, Old Bornou*, (which formerly contained 200,000 inhabitants,) *Delow, Mora, &c.*, are the other most important towns, and generally have large populations, and carry on considerable trade and manufactures.

BAGHERMEH, a kingdom south-east of the Tchad. The inhabitants are

noted among the Africans for their bravery and their industry. *Mesna* appears to be the capital.

MOBBA, a kingdom called "Dar Szaleh" by the Arabs; "Waddai" by the Fezzaners; and "Borgou" by the Bornouese. It is too imperfectly known to be described. Only a part of the kingdom appears to belong to the basin of the Tchad. Its capital is *Warra*, which is said to have been three times larger than Boulak, near Cairo.

And DAR-FUR, a considerable territory, situated eastward of Mobba, between the basin of the Tchad and the Bahr-el-Abiad. Its capital is *Kobbe*, or *Cobbe*, which was visited by Mr. Browne, in 1793. It carries on a great trade with the states of the Nile, and owns the supremacy of the Pasha of Egypt.

## SOUTHERN AFRICA.

IN this division of Africa we include, not only the whole of the continent south of the equator, but also all those unknown regions which extend northward to the chain of mountains which are supposed to stretch across its breadth; or, in other words, to a line drawn from the Camaroons, on the bight of Biafra, eastward to the Gulf of Aden. The region may be divided into four distinct portions, viz. :—1. The Maritime Regions of the West Coast. 2. The Maritime Regions of the East Coast. 3. South Africa; and 4. The Unexplored Interior. The three first we shall describe in the order in which they are above arranged; the latter, of which nothing whatever is known, need not be further remarked upon.

### I.—THE MARITIME REGIONS OF THE WEST-COAST.

THIS portion of Africa has generally been known as "Lower Guinea;" and, as far as ascertained, is occupied by several nations, and by districts, which geographers have been obliged to classify, for want of information, under arbitrary titles.

#### *The Coast of Gaboon.*

The country extending from the Camaroons to Cape Lopez, is called the "Coast of Gaboon;" but almost nothing is known of the interior. It would seem, from the reports of the American Missionaries settled in this country, that it is inhabited by a great number of different tribes, living in villages. These are called—the Mpongwe, Shekani, Bakali, Kama, Batanga, &c. nations, all speaking different languages, some of which have been reduced to writing; and being more or less civilized. They are governed by absolute sovereigns, and are almost constantly at war with each other. The Mpongwe and Batanga dialects seem to be the most universal. They have been a good deal engaged in supplying slaves for the Cape Lopez market; otherwise "the trade consists principally," says Mr. Wilson, "in ivory, gum, wax, and mats of the most beautiful and tasteful workmanship which I have seen in Africa." The people near Cape Lopez are wholly under the influence of the Portuguese and Spaniards, who are deeply implicated in the slave trade; and, but for this circumstance, it would be an

admirable field to be occupied by a Mission. The Batanga people, between the Gaboon River and the Camaroons, Mr. Wilson calls "the unsophisticated natives, that is, heathen of the deepest dye, but as yet untainted by the vices of civilized countries." Their features, complexion, and language, differ from the other coast tribes, and have some affinity to those of the Caffres of South Africa. Several schools have been established among these people, and the Missions are said to be in a prosperous condition. The only place of any importance on the coast is *Naango*, or Georgetown, the principal slave market on the Gaboon River.

#### *Loango.*

Loango appears to extend from Cape Lopez to the Congo or Zaire River, and also includes a number of petty kingdoms. The coast is high and abrupt, but the hills are covered with soil and a luxuriant vegetation. Almost the only grains cultivated are the manioc, maize, and a species of pulse called msangen; but the greater part of the country is covered with tall grass. The finest fruits grow wild, and the sugar-cane, yams, and potatoes, attain the most perfect development. The Chinese hog is the only animal reared for domestic use. The people reside in villages, or clusters of straw huts, in the midst of palm groves. They are in the lowest stage of civilization. The principal town, and the one from which the country has its name, is *LOANGO*, or Banza-Loango, situated in a large and fertile plain, about two miles from the coast, in  $4^{\circ} 36'$  south latitude, and is said to have a population of 15,000. The other principal towns are *Kingulle*, *Malemba*, and *Cabenda*, all noted as slave markets.

#### *Congo.*

Congo, a name originally applied to the whole coast, from Cape Lopez to Cape Frio, is now restricted to a small territory south of the Zaire. Near the sea the country is low and flat, traversed by numerous streams, and abounding in sandy deserts, but in general very fertile. The climate is pestilential. The interior consists of a succession of terraces, forming a fine, rich and populous country. The principal physical feature is the great River Zaire, which enters the Atlantic Ocean with a large body of water, 10 miles wide, in latitude  $6^{\circ} 5'$  south. The river has been explored for some distance, but its sources are unknown. Its banks are clothed with the most luxuriant vegetation. The country is divided into a number of petty states, each governed by a chenow or chief, acknowledging the supremacy of Blindy N'Congo, who resides at Banza-Congo. The Congoeses belong to the least favored of the negro race, and are sunk in the lowest state of degradation and superstition. Their religion is Fetichism, with a mixture of Christianity, introduced by the Portuguese, and idolatry; but the people are said to be sincere, hospitable, and compassionate. *San Salvador*, *Batta*, *Sundi*, *Condi*, and *Caugu*, are the towns best known. San Salvador was formerly a great slave market.

#### *Angola.*

Angola extends south of Congo, being about 350 miles from east to west, and from 50 to 60 from north to south. It is properly a part of Congo, from which, however, it has been politically separated since the middle of the 16th century. It is extremely mountainous, being destitute

of plains, except on the sea-shore, with some small flats on the sides or in the gorges of the mountains. The principal streams are the Coanza, Benga, and Dauda, the first and last forming the limits of the country. The soil near the coast is sandy, but not desert; in the interior it is rich, well-watered, and productive. The climate is excellent, and the heat moderate. Gold and silver are found in the mountains; iron is plentiful, and copper is also said to exist; but lead, sulphur, and petroleum, are its principal mineral productions. Every species of tropical vegetation is abundantly produced; and all the animals common to inter-tropical Africa are found. The people are black, but have few of the negro peculiarities in their form or feature; blue eyes and red hair are said to be common among them. The population is said to be dense. *Loando*, or St. Paul's, is the capital, and contains 8,000 inhabitants. The Portuguese established a factory on the coast in 1485, and their power has been extending ever since; they have one establishment 700 miles inland, and exercise great influence over the numerous petty chiefs, among whom the country is parcelled out. These, however, are subject to a sort of king, called the Incue. The principal exports are ivory and slaves; the latter being carried in great numbers to Brazil.

### *Benguela, &c.*

Benguela extends hence southward to Cape Negro. It appears to be mountainous, and watered by a great number of streams; and the elevation of some parts of the country is so considerable as to occasion a great degree of cold. Dense forests of tropical trees, and, higher up, of those of temperate climates, clothe the sides of the mountains. Vines, bananas, and various fruit trees also abound, but owing to the indolence of the people grain is seldom grown. The mountains yield copper, sulphur, petroleum, and crystals. The coast is excessively unhealthy, but the interior is salubrious. The country is inhabited by petty tribes of independent and very savage barbarians, the most noted being the Gagas, a wandering set of robbers, who acknowledge no tribe or nation. They are bold and skilful soldiers, but ruthless cannibals, without the slightest idea of art or industry, carrying destruction and desolation to every place they visit. The Portuguese have long had settlements on the coast and in the interior, but their power does not extend far beyond their forts. Their principal settlement is San Felipe de Benguela, on a bay on the north coast, in  $12^{\circ} 40'$  S. latitude.

The rest of the coast to the south of Benguela is a sandy desert, without water, scantily peopled or traversed by the Cimbebas and Damaras.

## 2.—THE MARITIME REGIONS OF THE EAST COAST.

The length of this coast, from the Strait of Bab-el-mandeb to the Delagoa river, is between 3,000 and 4,000 miles, of which, about 600 miles forms the southern border of the Gulf of Aden. The remainder faces on the Indian Ocean and the Channel of Mozambique.

### *The Country of the Somaulis.*

The coast of Aden, as well as the country Ajan to the south of Cape Guardafui, and as far as the river Juba, a little below the equator, has no



other distinctive name than Barra Somaui, or the land of the Somauiis, a people who live in numerous independent tribes. They are a mild race, of pastoral habits, and confined entirely to the coast, the whole of the interior being occupied by the savage Gallas, and appear to be the descendants of the aborigines of the country, who were early converted to Islamism by the Arabs, with whom they traded. The north coast, sometimes designated on maps "Adel," has three towns, which are little visited by Europeans: *Zeila*, *Tajurrah*, and *Berbera*. These are situated on the coast, and have good harbors, and their inhabitants barter the goods brought from the interior to the Arabians. *Berbera* is the seat of a great fair. The exports are coffee, sheep, gum, myrrh, ostrich feathers, gold-dust, hides, skins, and slaves. The whole trade is in the hands of the Banians.

#### *Zanzibar, Mozambique, &c.*

From Cape Guardafui the coast extends in a south-westerly direction, but with various windings, to the Cape of Good Hope, under the various names of "Ajan," (*Arabicé*, Haziné, i. e. rough ground;) "Zanguebar," sub-divided into Magadoxa, Melinda, Zanzibar, and Quiloo; "Mozambique;" Sabia; Inhamhané, and Caffraria. This long sweep of more than 3,000 miles, is chiefly occupied by negro tribes, in a state of utter barbarism; though some of them are numerous, and not quite destitute of arts and industry. Arab colonies are also found at various places along the coast. The sovereignty, as far as the river Mozimba, to the south of Cape Delgado, is claimed by the Imaum of Muscat; the remainder, as far at least as Delagoa Bay, by the Portuguese; but the only territory which the latter actually possesses is the "Captaincy of Rios de Senna," which contains about 3,000 square leagues. The town of the same name is situated on the Zambese river, in 17° 30' S. latitude. The other principal places within the Portuguese territory are Mozambique, Quilimané, Sofala, Inhambané, and Bahia da Alagoa. The Portuguese jurisdiction on the mainland does not extend ten miles inland, and the natives of the interior are quite independent. The islands of Pemba and Zanzibar, both belonging to the Imaum of Muscat, are very productive, and may be considered as the granaries of the neighboring countries. The foreign commerce is considerable, and the Imaum farms out the customs for £30,000 per annum. Quiloo also is governed by Muscatese officers. The only other towns on the coast worth noticing, are:—*Magadoxa*, (*Mukdesha*), a considerable place with an imposing appearance, the buildings being very large and of stone, overtopped by four minarets, but these are only inhabited by the dead, the living population being resident in low thatched huts; *Brava*, within the territory of Magadoxa, also a port of some importance; and *Melinda*, once a flourishing city, but now totally destroyed by the savage Gallas. *Mombaz*, 4° 4' S. latitude, a town in possession of the Arabs, is only a mass of huts, hovels, and ruins. It is situated on a small island, in a bay or gulf, which forms perhaps one of the most perfect harbors in the world. The island is surrounded by cliffs of madrepora, capable of being rendered, by very little labor, almost impregnable. The only Portuguese port open to foreign commerce is that of Mozambique.

#### 3.—SOUTH AFRICA.

The name of "South Africa" is usually restricted to the British and Dutch settlements adjoining the Cape of Good Hope, and to the countries

possessed by the various aboriginal tribes with which the colonists have intercourse. In this sense the northern limit may be fixed at the tropic of capricorn, where the continent has a breadth of nearly 1,300 miles, between the Atlantic and Indian Oceans; while the country extends southward through nearly  $10^{\circ}$  of latitude; or by a more natural division the northern limit may be formed by a diagonal line drawn from Walvisch Bay, on the west coast, to Delagoa Bay, on the east coast.

Southern Africa is generally composed of chains of lofty mountains and intervening valleys, extending east and west; excepting one range, which stretches along the western coast from Table Bay for about 200 miles. The first great chain running east and west, has along the southern coast a belt of undulating land from 10 to 30 miles wide, indented by several bays, and intersected by numerous streamlets; the soil is rich, the hills well-wooded, and the climate, from its proximity to the ocean, equable and mild. The next great chain is the *Zwaarte Bergen* or *Black Mountains*; it is more rugged and lofty than the coast chain, and divided from it by an interval of 10 or 20 miles. The third range is the *Nieuwvelt Bergen*. Between these mountains and the second range is the Great Karroo or Desert, an elevated steppe, nearly 300 miles in length, from east to west, and 80 in breadth, with a general elevation of 1,000 feet above the sea. Along the western coast the country also ascends in successive terraces, the most elevated of which (the *Roggeveltdt*), unites with the chain of the *Nieuwveltdt*. Indeed, the *Roggeveltdt Bergen* may be said to commence in nearly  $30^{\circ}$  south latitude, running nearly south for two and a half degrees, when its course is bent to the east, and subsequently to the north-east until the range reaches Delagoa Bay, that part of it forming the north boundary of the Great Karroo being termed *Neuwveltdt Bergen*. At the most southern extremity there are several eminences, the heights and names of which are—Table Mountain, 3,528 feet; Devil's Peak, 3,515; Lion's Head, 2,166; Lion's Rump, 1,143; Muyzenberg, about 2,000; Elsey Peak, 1,200; Simon's Berg, or Signal Hill, 2,500; Paulusberg, 1,200; Constantia, 3,200; Cape Peak, 1,000; and Hanglip Cape, 1,800 feet.

The diluvian origin of South Africa is evident, and the formation of the country is sufficiently indicated by the structure of Table Mountain, which is composed of many strata, piled on each other in large tabular masses, lying close together, without any intermediate veins of extraneous matter. The plain round the mountain is a blue schistus, running in parallel ridges, and interrupted by masses of a hard blue flinty rock. This rests on a stratum of stony iron-colored clay, abounding with brown foliated mica, and interspersed with huge blocks of granite. The experiment of boring in search of coal, at Wynberg, a tongue of land projecting from Table Mountain, gave the following insight into the strata of the country: coal, 2 feet; blue soapy rock, 5; white soapy rock, 22; grey sand-stone with clay, 21; brown sand-stone, 14; bluish soapy clay, 31; and striated sand, red and white, containing clay, 33:—total 128 feet.

The most distinguishing feature of the mountains of Kaffreland is a superincumbent stratum of sandstone, huge detached masses being found in many places standing some feet above the surface. Quartz, crystal, iron-stone, and ochre, of different kinds, are everywhere observable. In the Graaff Reinet district some specimens of tufa and abundance of limestone are found; fossil remains of mammoth animals have also been discovered; cornelian, topaz, and blood-stone have been met with; and, in the northern districts, saltpetre. The infinite number of large blocks of isolated stones

that are found in South Africa, to the very verge of the Cape promontory, are aggregates of quartz and mica; they contain also cubic pieces of feldspar, and seem to be bound together by plates of clayey iron-stone; by the action of the air and weather they fall to pieces in large concentric laminæ, become disintegrated, and finally form a soil at first harsh and sterile, but meliorated and enriched by time.

The soil of the different localities presents a corresponding variety in composition. In many places it is a naked sand, in others a stiff clay; and in some a rich dark mould prevails. The east-coast border is generally an alluvial loam, as is the case with many vallies, particularly among the ravines and windings of Fish River. The soil of the Great Karroo partakes of every character, and is much mixed with detrital matter and volcanic scoræ. Some flat marshes of this district are overgrown with rushes, and abound in springs strongly impregnated with salt; and a species of *salsola*, or salt-wort, grows here in profusion, around the roots of which a fine white nitrous powder is found, which makes an excellent soap.

Of minerals, few have yet been discovered. Coal has been met with in several parts; and alum, which is peculiarly beautiful and pure, has recently been discovered. At Camtoos Bay a rich *Galēna* has been found in the sides of a deep glen, in quartzose sandstone of a yellowish color. This ore yields, in 200 lbs., 100 of lead, and 8 oz. of silver. Mineral waters exist in different places, and there are numerous salt lakes and ponds, which supply the country with that necessary article. Along the eastern coast are found immense heaps of shells, in various places, several hundred feet above the sea-level, and generally in greatest abundance in sheltered caverns.

From the Cape, along the south coast to Algoa Bay, a bank of various soundings projects far out to sea, called the bank of L'Agulhas. The extreme point is nearly in the longitude of Cape Vaches,  $22^{\circ}$  E. and  $37^{\circ} 30'$  S. latitude, about 200 miles from the shore, where it quickly converges, and assumes a narrow conical form, with very deep water at its southern end. It is probably the deposit of the strong current which sets to the south and west, and is generally strongest during the winter months, running with the greatest velocity along the edge of the bank, or a little outside of soundings. When opposed by adverse gales, a very high sea is thrown up, which sometimes lessens the strength of the current. By keeping on the edge of the bank, a ship will be carried eighty miles a day with an adverse wind round the Cape into the Atlantic; but, towards the shore, the rapidity of the stream becomes gradually less, and the sea smoother.

A very mild temperature distinguishes the climate of the western portions of this region. The greatest heat at Cape Town is  $96^{\circ}$  Fahr., and the least  $45^{\circ}$ , with an average through the year of  $68^{\circ}$ . In short, it corresponds almost exactly with that of Madeira, the extremes being a little more apart. In different parts of the country, however, the meteorological phenomena are much varied according to the direction and height of the mountains. In the eastern districts the climate resembles that of England, and, generally speaking, is very salubrious. The deficiency and irregularity of the rains is the greatest drawback that the agriculturist experiences. In the south-west districts the rains are profuse in winter; but in summer the earth is parched up. In some of the northern tracts, bordering on the Great Karroo, there is sometimes no rain for three years in succession; and even in more favored districts, the rain, when it does come, falls in torrents, and does great damage. Sometimes also the south-west wind besides being

excessively hot, is loaded with impalpable sand; but as the breeze continues it gradually cools, and becomes more supportable.

The vegetation of South Africa is unique, varied, and beautiful. Nowhere can the botanist find a richer and more delightful field for his pursuits. The *ericæ*, or heaths, are pre-eminent in variety and beauty, flourishing equally on stony hills and sandy plains. An endless variety of plants grow in wild luxuriance; but it is singular, that of the numerous *protea* produced indiscriminately in every hill, the *protea argentea* is confined to the base of the Table Mountain, and has not been found in any other part of the world. The palma-christi and the aloe, are everywhere found in great plenty, and the mulberry, and the myrica cerifera are found wild on the heathy sides of the hills. Avenues of oaks, and plantations of white poplar, stone-pine and others, are to be seen near most of the country houses. The most valuable trees, however, are the stinkwood, a species of quercus peculiar to South Africa, and the geelhout or yellow-wood, both of which are excellently adapted for building, furniture, and all domestic purposes. There is besides a great variety of other timber trees. The Karroo is chiefly covered with varieties of mesembryanthema, crassula, stapelia, and euphorbia, and with tufts and bunches of wiry grass, which expand widely after rain. Several species of the indigo-plant grow wild; the cactus thrives; cotton flourishes in the eastern districts; and the tea-plant has long been reared in the country. Of fruit there is every variety of the tropical and temperate zones; oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, guavas, grapes, melons, pomegranates, shaddocks, quinces, peaches, pears, apples, plums, mulberries, raspberries, walnuts, almonds, &c., and all of excellent flavor. There is also a great variety of grapes, and wine (known to commerce as Cape Wine) of a most delicious quality, is extensively manufactured. Culinary vegetables of every kind are planted; and the grains, grasses, &c., are nowhere found in more luxurious growth.

Among the animals of South Africa are found the elephant, weighing 4,000 lbs., and the black-streaked mouse, weighing a quarter of an ounce; the giraffe, 17 feet high, and the elegant zenik, or viverra, only three inches;—the ostrich, six feet high, and the creeper, a bird about the size of a cherry! The lion, the leopard, and the panther, and various species of the tiger-cat are indigenous; and the wolf, hyæna and jackal are everywhere found; as also the ant-eater, the iron-hog, the jerboa, and several species of the hare. Buffaloes are numerous, and many of the plains abound with zebras, quaggas, and gnus. In the mountains there are troops of the dog-faced baboon, and swarms of apes and monkeys of all sizes. There are also two distinct species of the two-horned rhinoceros; and hippopotamusses are numerous to the eastward, and as large as those of the Nile.

Birds exist in great variety: the secretary (falco serpentarius) is peculiar to the Cape. Eagles, vultures, kites, pelicans, flamingoes, cranes, spoon-bills, ibises, wild-geese, ducks, teal, snipes, buzzards, partridges, turtle-doves, thrushes, and humming-birds of every description, are found in great abundance. Many other beautiful and curious birds might be mentioned, as the locust bird, one of the most useful, as it feeds on the larvæ of that destructive insect; and the honey-bird, which directs the honey-hunter to the hives of the wild bee. Ants are very numerous; but the visitations of the locusts are now rare. Reptiles are by no means prolific, nor are accidents from them very frequent. The boa-constrictor of a large size has been killed near Natal, and also a new species of alligator; and large crocodiles have been seen in Delagoa Bay. Fish are extremely abundant, and of almost

every species, in the bays and along the coasts. During the winter season, whales, porpoises, and sharks enter the bays; and seals and penguins frequent various parts of the coast.

The domestic cattle of Europe are all found here, altered, however, in many respects. The horse is smaller but very hardy, while the ox is large horned and clumsy in proportions; but the beef is excellent. The sheep are long-legged, small bodied, thin in front, and have all their fat collected about the hind quarters. The general weight of the sheep is from 40 to 60 pounds, and the wool, if it may be so called, is a strong frizzled hair, which drops off in September and October, and is scarcely fit even for stuffing cushions. Merinos are now being extensively introduced. The Namaquas possess the handsomest and most vigorous breeds of domestic animals in South Africa. The oxen are equally strong as those of the colony, but are trained into three different classes: beasts of burden and draught, saddle oxen, and war oxen. The saddle oxen are much superior to the horse in supporting fatigue. The war oxen are peculiar to this nation; they are chosen from the most savage and ungovernable, and being driven against the enemy rush on them like wild bulls;—they will even attack wild beasts.

Of the white inhabitants of Southern Africa, the most numerous are the original European settlers, or their descendants, termed *Africanders*, and consist chiefly of Dutch, with a small intermixture of French Protestant refugees who left their country after the revocation of the edict of Nantes. In physical structure the Cape Dutchmen are a fine race; in some districts their stature and strength are gigantic; particularly on the frontiers, where little vegetable food is consumed, and where mutton stewed in sheep's-tail fat is the principal food throughout the year. In mental attainments they are by no means deficient, when they are educated in youth, and when a proper stimulus is given to the development of their talents. In the interior of the country corpulence is one of the chief beauties of a Dutch housewife; and the men are distinguished alike for their hospitality and bravery. Those who live by grazing, termed *Vee Boors*, are now the most numerous, and, probably, the wealthiest class. A numerous colony of British settlers was established in Uitenhage, Somerset, and Albany, on the eastern frontier of the colony in 1820. The other British colonists are principally confined to Capetown, or engaged in trade at different stations.

The liberated slaves form the next most numerous caste. They amount to 35,000, and may be divided into three classes: Malays, Negroes, and *Africanders*; the last being a mixed race, descended from a European man and a Malay or negro woman. These classes keep themselves perfectly distinct, and will not intermarry. Many of them are nominally Christians; but the prevailing creed of the Malays is Islamism.

The *Hottentots*, the aborigines of the country, are the next in number, but the least in importance and social worth, in the opinion of many of the colonists. At present, after two centuries of oppression, they probably do not amount to 30,000. When young they are clean-limbed, and well proportioned; with joints, hands, and feet remarkably small. In some the nose is flat, in others it is raised; the eyes are of deep chestnut color, very long, narrow, and distant from each other. The eyelids are rounded into each other exactly like those of the Chinese. Their complexion is a clear olive or yellowish brown; and the hair of the head grows in hard, knotted tufts, and when left to grow, hangs on the neck in hard twisted, fringe-like tassels. Their cheek bones are high and prominent, forming, with a narrow

pointed chin nearly a triangle; their teeth are small, and exquisitely enamelled. The tending of cattle is their principal occupation in the colony; and for this purpose they hire themselves to the farmers. Their fidelity and honesty, when well treated, entitle them to rank with any Europeans. Their habits of life, however, are filthy and slovenly. Their villages, or kraals, form a confused mass of little conical huts, reared of twigs and earth, and so low that the inmates cannot stand upright. They carry on various little manufactures, such as tanning and dressing skins, forming mats of flags and bulrushes, bowstrings from the sinews of animals, and even moulding iron into knives. Several varieties of the Hottentot race exist on the skirts of the colony, under the names of Korannas, Bosjesmans, Namaquas, Damaras, and Griquas or Bastards.

The Korannas or Koras are a nomadic people of mild character, occupying the country along the banks of the Gariep, and are divided into a number of independent tribes. They appear to be a mixture between the Hottentots and the Caffres. They dress in sheep-skins, and their food consists of curdled milk, supplied by their cows, which they seldom or never kill, aided by berries, locusts, and game. A wild superstition supplies the place of religion.

The Bosjesmans or Bushmen, probably the aborigines of South Africa, are now reduced to a very small number. They are short in stature, but well made; of an olive color, resembling the hue of a faded beech-leaf; their eyes are very small, deep-seated, roguish, and twinkling incessantly; their lips thick and projecting; and their nose small and depressed. In cold weather a skin is used for covering, and a mat, placed on two sticks over a hole in the earth, serves as a house. Their weapon is a poisoned arrow, which inflicts a certain and speedy death. They are adepts in stealing cattle and sheep; and consequently many of the Dutch border farmers used to hunt them like wild beasts, and even to boast of the number they had killed. Their language seems to consist of a collection of disagreeable hissing sounds, all more or less nasal; but in general they understand a little Dutch. Sorcerers exist among them, and they seem to have a name for the Supreme Being; but of their religion it is difficult to obtain information. All efforts to preserve the remnant of the Bushmen seem to be abortive. They are to be found chiefly between the Gariep and the northern borders of the colony.

The Namaquas are a pastoral people, inhabiting the country on both sides of the Gariep towards the sea-coast. They differ little from the Korannas in their habits; like them they live chiefly on milk, and lead a migratory life. Their country is, for the most part, an extensive plain; the climate is hot and dry, and the thermometer, in the summer months, rises so high as 120° Fahrenheit.

The Damaras dwell along the coast, to the north of Namaqualand, and by some travellers are believed to be of the Caffre race. Their country is considered fertile; they grow various kinds of pulse; but flocks and herds form their principal wealth. They manufacture copper ornaments of a rude kind; and are associated in large villages, which are substantially built. Their weapons are the bow and arrow and the assagais.

The Griquas are spread along the banks of the Gariep, about the middle of its course, for 700 miles, and are in number from 15,000 to 20,000, of whom about 5,000 are armed with muskets. They are a mixed race, produced by the intercourse of Dutchmen with Hottentot women, on which account the Dutch colonists call them Bastards. They evince a bold,

warlike, and industrious disposition ; possess numerous flocks and herds, with many excellent horses. Their principal settlement is at Griquatown or Klaarwater (480 miles N. E. of Capetown,) where the elders of the people reside, and conduct the affairs of the tribe, aided by two or three excellent missionaries, who are, in South Africa, the pioneers of civilization.

The CAFFERS, KAFFIRS, or CAFFRES, live along the coast to the east of the colony, and extend to a considerable distance inland. Caffre or Infidel is a term of reproach applied to all the people of South Africa by the Moslem inhabitants farther north. They have themselves no general name, and do not form one political community ; but are divided into races and tribes, known by the various names of Amakosas or Amaxosas, Amatembous, Amapondas, Amazoulah, and Tambookies. They are supposed to be of Arabian descent ; but have no records of their origin. With the exception of the woolly hair, the Caffres have no resemblance to the Hottentots or negroes ; for, though their color is a dark brown, nearly black, yet their features are regular, with an Asiatic cast, and their forms symmetrical ; the men, in particular, being of a fair average height, and extremely well proportioned. The head is not, generally, longer than that of a European ; the frontal and the occipital bones form nearly semicircles ; and the profile of the face is, in some instances, as finely rounded and as convex as that of a Greek or Roman. The women are of a short stature, very strong-limbed and muscular ; and they attribute the keeping up of the standard of the men, to their frequent intermarriages with strangers, whom they purchase of the neighboring tribes ; the barter of cattle for young women forming one of the principal articles of their trade. They are remarkably cheerful, frank, and animated, place implicit confidence in visitors, and use every means to entertain them. In the warm season they prefer a state of nudity, with a scanty apron ; but in winter they use cloaks of wild beast skins admirably curried. Their arms are javelins, short clubs, and large shields of buffalo hides ; but their intestine wars, which often arise about disputed pasture-ground, are generally decided without much bloodshed. They never wear a covering for the head even in the hottest weather, and seldom use any kind of shoes, unless during a long journey, when they strap a kind of leather sole to the foot. Both sexes have their bodies tattooed, especially on the shoulders ; and young men who wish to pass for dandies, paint their skins red, and curl their hair into small distinct knots like peas. They have no towns ; but their kraals or villages generally consist of about a dozen of huts, like those of the Korannas ; in these, however, they spend little of their time ; for the climate is so fine that they live chiefly in the open air, and it is only at night, or in bad weather, or during sickness, that they remain within doors. The sites of the villages and the cattle folds are chosen with reference to the pasture grounds, as the increase and maintenance of their herds and flocks seem to be their only and unceasing care. Their diet is very simple, consisting principally of milk in a sour curdled state. Horses have been lately introduced among them ; sheep and goats have also multiplied exceedingly. No regular system of idolatry exists among them ; but they are much addicted to sorcery, spells, and charms, and some scattered traces may even be found of the remains of religious institutions. The men are brave and warlike, but seldom engage in war ; their principal occupation is that of herdsmen, in which they cannot be excelled. Their government is that of hereditary chieftains, who are legislators as well as judges ; but they assemble, occa-

sionally, the elders of the tribes as a kind of jury, and also permit them a voice in their decisions. Their laws are few, simple, and easily understood. Murder, adultery, sorcery, and theft are the most frequent crimes; but murder is seldom punished with death, the murderer being generally fined in proportion to the importance of the person slain. Polygamy is allowed.

The BETCHUANAS, who inhabit the country to the north of the Gariep, are superior to the Caffres in arts and civilization. They have large towns; their houses are well built, and remarkable for neatness; they cultivate the ground, and store the grain for winter consumption. Their features are more European than those of the Caffres, and often beautiful; their complexion is a brightish brown. Proceeding north-eastward, the traveller finds industry and civilization increasing at every step, and beyond the Murutsi, the last of the Betchuana tribes are the NAQUAINAS, a numerous and powerful nation, equalling the Murutsi in industry, and far surpassing them in wealth and numbers. They are known to all the southern tribes, as the people from whom all other nations receive their iron and copper wares. All, indeed, of the South African tribes to the south of Inhambané habitually regard each other as members of the same family; they are, as they express it, one people, and, unless when war disturbs their harmony, mingle together without fear or mistrust. The industrious tribes of the interior are not insensible to gain; the mercantile character is fully developed among them; and they think of nothing, says Mr. Campbell, but beads and cattle. Their trade may be traced from Delagoa Bay on the eastern, to Whale-fish bay on the western coast; and from Latakoo northwards to the Zambeze. The most southern tribe of the Betchuanas is the Batclapis, whose chief town is Litakoo or Latakoo, situate about  $27^{\circ} 6'$  S. latitude,  $24^{\circ} 40'$  E. longitude, with a population variously estimated at from 4,000 to 10,000. Its situation, however, has been several times changed within the present century; and Kruman, or New Latakoo, is the principal missionary station. Eastward from the Batclapis are the Tammahas, whose chief town is Mashow, 190 miles, or thereabouts, E. N. E. from Latakoo, and containing about 10,000 or 12,000 inhabitants. North-east of the Tammahas are the Murutsi, whose chief town is Kurrichane, about four times the size of Latakoo. West or north-west of the Murutsi are the Wankitsi.

The ZOOLAHs, or ZULUS, who live to the south-westward of Delagoa Bay, and round Port Natal, are a remarkably neat, intelligent, and industrious people, rich in cattle, cultivating a fine country, and inhabiting large towns. They were originally few in number; but have spread their conquests over a large territory, and now form a nation composed of all kinds of tribes. They are, generally speaking, of a more ferocious character than the southern Caffres, and also more powerful; but there is now a desert tract of 180 miles interposed between the Zoolahs and the Amapondas. Of late years, however, a great number of Dutch boors and farmers, discontented with the British government of the colony, have passed the frontiers to the north-east, and, after fighting their way through the intervening tribes, have established themselves, as an independent people, in the country of the Zoolahs, at Port Natal. Their chief town is *Pietermauritzburg*.

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## SPERANZA, OR CAPE COLONY.

THE portion of South Africa occupied by the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, consists of the most southern part of the continent, from



the river of Port Natal on the east coast, and the Gariep or Orange River on the west, including part of Caffraria, recently annexed. This country, on its north line, from east to west, is about 700 miles wide, and in depth, from north to south, from 330 to 500—least depth in the central parts, being there bounded by the third range of mountains. The whole contains an area of about 280,000 square miles.

The settled portions of the colonial territory are divided into two provinces, named the Western and Eastern, the latter of which is under the jurisdiction of a Commissioner-General. These provinces are subdivided into districts; but, as we have no general returns since 1836, it is useless to repeat the details of their statistics, as it is probable that many changes have since taken place. At that period the area of the colony was stated at 110,256½ square miles; and the population, 150,110, of which 51,463 were negroes. Since then the population has been much increased from immigration, and the accession of a large territory on the east coast, by which the amount is probably, at the present time, at least 250,000.

The affairs of the colony are administered by a Governor, who resides at Capetown, aided by an Executive Council, which is composed of the Commander of the Forces, the Chief-Justice, the Auditor-General, Treasurer, Accountant-General, and Secretary to Government. There is also a Legislative Council, appointed by the British Home Government. The eastern districts have been lately placed under the superintendence of a Commissioner-General, who resides at Uitenhage. Each district or drostdy has a civil commissioner, who acts also as a resident magistrate, and is aided by a number of unpaid justices of peace; a district is subdivided into a number of smaller divisions called veld-cornetcies, over each of which a veld-cornet, a sort of petty magistrate, presides. He receives no salary, but is exempt from all direct taxes.

When the Cape became a British Colony the Dutch civil and criminal laws were in operation; but these, particularly the latter, have undergone considerable modification. The laws are administered by a Supreme Court, consisting of one Chief and two Puisne Justices; and for the better execution of the law, sheriffs and deputy-sheriffs of districts have been appointed since 1828.

There is a variety of creeds among the Christian part of the population; the most numerous body being the Calvinists, or adherents of the Dutch Reformed Church. Missionary Societies have also been long laboring in the attempt to convert the Hottentots and Caffres, and in some places have met with considerable success.

Corn, wine, wool, provisions, oil, aloes, and fruits, are the staples of this fine colony; but many other articles are either produced in the colony or obtained from the neighboring nations. There is an annual exportation of corn to a considerable amount, which brings, as flour, a higher price at the Mauritius and other markets than the best American. Barley, oats, and Indian corn, thrive well; the last is admirably adapted for fattening swine, the export of which, in the shape of hams, bacon, and salt pork, is yearly increasing. Two crops of potatoes are raised during the year, which are of a succulent yet mealy quality; and the nutritive property of every article of provision is abundantly exemplified in the fat and healthy appearance of the people. Wine has long been a staple export. The culture of the vine was introduced by the French Protestant refugees, and wherever the quality has been attended to, the wine produced is equal to that prepared in any other part of the world; but the vine-growers have, unfortunately, been

hitherto more attentive to the quantity than the quality of their wines, so that they are of very little repute in the European markets; and the reduction of duty on foreign wines imported into Britain since 1825, has almost ruined the Cape wine-trade. Constantia, near Capetown, was long celebrated for a peculiar and excellent wine. Wool will, in time, be one of the greatest and most profitable staples of the colony. The colonists are now actively engaged in endeavoring to change their coarse-woolled, or rather hairy sheep, for the fine and pure breed of that animal, whose numbers now exceed 350,000. The settlers in Albany have taken the lead, and have imported Saxon and Merino rams from England and Australia. The fineness of the climate, which renders winter provender unnecessary, and the great extent of upland soil and park-like downs, with the numerous salsola and saline plants, so well adapted to prevent the fuke or rot, show the adaptation of the colony for a vast sheep-fold, capable of supplying an almost indefinite quantity of the finest wool. Hides and horns are rapidly increasing as a staple, and the quantity of ivory, ostrich feathers, gums, and other articles, procured from the native tribes, have proved a valuable branch of commerce. Horses for India, live stock for the Mauritius and other places, are also staple exports. Aloe juice is exported in considerable quantity; dried fruits, as apples, apricots, peaches, pears, &c., have been long in great demand. Raisins are exported to New South Wales, Mauritius, and England. The fisheries have not yet been sufficiently attended to. During the calving season whales come into every bay on the coast, and thus, in some years, a considerable number of them are taken; but there have been no vessels fitted out for whale-fishing along the coast, or among the islands to the northward of Madagascar, where the sperm-whale abounds. The principal trade is with Britain; the largest portion of it is carried on at Table Bay; and the annual value of the commerce of the colony may be estimated at upwards of a million sterling.

There are few roads; and communication throughout the country is almost entirely obstructed by the numerous mountain ranges, the *kloofs* or passes of which are tremendous. A comparatively easy access from Capetown is to be found only by the small strip of land between the western coast and the mountains of the Cape and Stellenbusch districts, while the districts of Clanwilliam, Worcester, Beaufort, and Graffreyne, to say nothing of Somerset, are in a manner shut out by the difficulties which the mountains present. To surmount the great barrier between the Cape Peninsula and the eastern districts, two works have recently been undertaken and completed, to the incalculable advantage of the colony. The first is a splendid mountain-road through French Hoeck Pass; and the second, called Sir Lowry's Pass, was executed by order of the governor, Sir G. L. Cole, in 1830; farther east this road passes through the Houw Hoeck Pass, from which there is an excellent natural path as far as the village of George, 300 miles from Capetown. The French Hoeck Pass leads to Worcester; but the roads beyond it are extremely bad, and could be improved only at an enormous expense. Every one who has read Barrow, Burchell, or other travellers of note, must have been appalled at the very description of the ascent or descent of a wagon by the old Hottentot Holland Kloof, and will feel pleasure in learning that it may now be passed at a brisk trot over as good a road as any in England. Indeed, but for the mountain passes the communications throughout the country would be easy, for, with the exception of a few sandy spots of inconsiderable extent, the surface of the ground presents a good hard bottom covered with a crust of ironstone

gravel, over which travelling may be performed at the rate of six miles an hour on horseback, from five to five and a half in a horse-wagon, and three in a wagon drawn by oxen.—(*On the Roads and Kloofs in the Cape Colony*, by Major C. C. Mitchell, Surveyor-General. *Journal R. Geog., Soc. Lond.* VI. 168.)

CAPETOWN, (KAAPSTAD of the Dutch,) is situated on the south side of Table Bay, at the foot of Table Mountain, on a plain which rises with an easy ascent. It is regularly built, with straight and parallel streets, crossing each other at right angles, and shaded with elm or oak trees. The houses are mostly of red-brick or stone, of a good size, and generally have a stoup or terrace before the door, shaded with trees, beneath which the inhabitants, British as well as Dutch, delight to lounge, sheltered from the sun, or to inhale the fresh evening breeze. The squares are well laid out, the streets are extremely clean, and the public buildings numerous and substantial. Throughout the week there is a continual busy hum of industry; and on the Sabbath the sounds of the church-bells, and the groups of well-dressed people flocking to their respective places of worship, readily make the traveller forget that he is at the southern extremity of Africa. The castle, on the south-east side of the town, is a strong fortification, commanding the anchorage; and, if well-defended, is capable of a successful resistance to any force which may be brought against it. It is pentagonal, with a broad ditch and regular outworks; and contains most of the public offices, and barracks for 1,000 men. There are several other defensive works, and the anchorage is commanded by a battery called the Mouille. A plentiful supply of excellent water is brought to the town in pipes, and distributed to every part of it; ships' boats are supplied at the landing-place with a beverage equal to that of the Thames. The population exceeds 30,000, of whom more than half are white; and of these the majority are Dutch. An institution, called the South-African College, was founded at Capetown, in 1829; its affairs are under the superintendence of a council and senate; and it has professors of mathematics, astronomy, classical, English, Dutch, and French literature, drawing, &c. There is also a South-African literary and scientific Institution, with a museum attached to it; a South-African public library; a Medical Society; a Royal Observatory, and several religious and benevolent societies.

The other towns of the colony are generally mere villages. The only large town is Grahamstown, in Albany, situated on the Kowie river, 650 miles east of Capetown, and 100 from Port Elizabeth on Algoa Bay. It contains about 1,200 houses, about 5,000 inhabitants, two public libraries, a printing office, and several excellent public buildings and institutions. Port Elizabeth, in Uitenhage, on the coast of Algoa Bay, three miles north of Cape Recife, is rapidly rising in importance, and being a free port, bids fair to rival Capetown. Uitenhage, the capital of the district, is also a neat and flourishing town, built on a large and well-watered plain, 500 miles from Capetown. Cradock, in Somerset district, on the direct road to the Gugira and Betchuana countries, is fast improving, and contains 2,000 inhabitants. Graffreyneet is situated on a sort of basin, almost encircled by the deep channel of the Sunday river, closely environed by an amphitheatre of steep, rugged hills, and contains about 500 houses, almost all neat and commodious brick buildings, with wide straight streets, which are planted with rows of orange and lemon trees. Population between 2,000 and 3,000. Port-Beaufort, at the mouth of Brede river, in Swellendam district, enjoys a considerable coasting trade. Georgetown, in Georgia district, is pleasantly

situated on a large plain, seven miles from the sea, is divided into several streets, with handsome houses, and is rapidly improving. Bathurst, in Albany, occupies an elevated site, nine miles inland from Port-Francis, and was intended for the capital of the district.

The Cape of Good Hope was discovered in 1486 by Bartholomew Diaz. In 1640 two commanders of the English East India Company took possession of the country in the name of King James; but no settlement was then formed. In 1650 it was colonized by the Dutch government, and remained in their possession for 156 years. In 1795 it was taken possession of by a British armament, but restored to the Dutch in 1802. In 1806 it was again taken possession of by the British, and confirmed to them at the general peace in 1814.

## THE ISLANDS OF AFRICA.

### MADAGASCAR.

THE Island of Madagascar is situated in the Indian Ocean, between  $12^{\circ}$  and  $26^{\circ}$  S. latitude, and  $44^{\circ}$  and  $52^{\circ}$  E. longitude, being 930 miles in length by from 70 to 330 in breadth, and containing an area of about 235,000 square miles.

Along the east coast extends a margin of low land 20 or 30 miles in breadth, and along the west coast a similar margin from 70 to 100 miles wide; and between them is an elevated country, consisting of extensive plateaux running north and south, diversified with hills, luxuriant valleys, passes, and ravines, craters of extinct volcanoes, forests, savannahs, rivers, and lakes, while almost every part of the coast is indented with spacious harbors and bays. Though the island is not traversed by any continuous chain, yet many parts may be called mountainous—the highest point, “Ankatarea,” in latitude  $19^{\circ} 40'$  S., is about 11,000 feet above the level of the sea. The most fertile parts are the valleys, most of which produce rice and other vegetables, or are clothed with a rich and luxuriant verdure.

The climate is essentially tropical, and though mild in the interior, is excessively hot in the low coast regions, where heat and moisture combine to produce the most inveterate and deadly diseases. The trade-winds from the east and south-east prevail during the greater part of the year; while the rains are often accompanied by violent gales from the north-west, west, and south-west. Earthquakes are sometimes felt. The soil in many parts is prolific, and highly susceptible of improvement; and the island produces many valuable plants, including both those of tropical and temperate regions. The wild animals as well as the domestic stock are similar to those of South Africa, and in many parts are so numerous as to become a nuisance and danger to the inhabitants.

The people are all comprised under one emperor, form one nation, and speak the same language in different dialects; but they appear, nevertheless, to be descended from several stocks. The distinction of color separates them into two great classes: one of which is olive colored, handsome featured, graceful, but with lank dark hair; while the other, and more numerous class, closely resembles the Papuans, being short and stout, almost

black, with low foreheads, broad flat faces, large eyes and mouth, and long crisped hair. With the exception of the Ovahs, who belong to the first class, and live in the interior; the Madegasses are little better than barbarians, go almost naked, despise a settled life, are extremely superstitious and vicious. Their diet consists principally of rice and manioc, with beef and poultry, and their cookery is extremely simple. The whole population numbers about 4,700,000.

Madagascar is divided into 28 provinces, each having a separate chief; but latterly the Ovahs have become the predominant tribe, and their chief, who is in fact sovereign of the island, receives tribute from all the rest. The government is despotic, and the succession usually hereditary. The royal family are highly honored, and no people can be more tenacious of etiquette than his subjects, and of the respect they hold due to rank. The sovereign is also high priest of the national religion, which is a rude species of polytheistic idolatry. Christianity was introduced with some success by English Missionaries, between 1818 and 1825; but a royal edict in the latter year not only forbid the profession of it, but legalized the persecution of all its adherents; and every means have been adopted to destroy the effects of the past exertions of the missionaries in the promotion of religion and social improvement.

The country is almost shut out from the commerce of the world. The French, however, have some small stations on the coasts.

*Tananarivo*, the capital, is situated on a lofty table-land, nearly in the centre of the island, and contains about 12,000 inhabitants. *Tamatave*, on the east coast, is also a place of considerable importance.

Madagascar was discovered in 1506, by the Portuguese, and in 1642 the French attempted to make it one of their colonies; but in 1664 the colonists were obliged to retire to Bourbon. The Jesuits meanwhile continued to exert themselves in the establishment of Christianity, but, through indiscretion, so exasperated the natives that several of their number were massacred, and the remainder were glad to escape from the island. From 1818 to 1825 the English missionaries were allowed to visit the island, with full permission to deliver their views, and the sovereign Radama, was favorable to the establishment of schools, and the introduction of improved methods, both of agriculture and manufactures. Since his death, however, there has been a stagnation in the trade with England, and Christian Missionaries and converted natives have suffered dreadful persecution, and, in some instances, martyrdom.

#### THE COMORO ISLANDS.

The Comoro Islands, four in number, viz: Comoro, Anjouan, Mohilla, and Mayotta, lie midway between Cape Delgado and the most northern part of Madagascar. They are high and mountainous in the interior; but in the lower grounds abound in sheep, cattle, and all kinds of tropical grain and fruit. The people are mild and industrious. The population of Comoro, the largest, is said to be about 30,000.

#### BOURBON OR REUNION.

BOURBON is situated 440 miles east of Madagascar, in latitude 21° S., and is of an oval form, containing about 900 square miles. It is divided into two parts by a range of hills running north and south, and connecting two volcanic groups, or centres of volcanic action; the end of which, in the north, the "Piton des Neiges," rises 10,355 feet, and the other, in the

south, the “Piton de Fournaise,” is an active volcano of 7,218 feet elevation. There are no plains of any extent; the shores are low, however, but have neither road nor harbor. The climate is healthy and agreeable, more especially on the eastern or windward side, but the general tranquillity is sometimes disturbed by violent hurricanes. The soil is very fertile, and cultivation is carried up the mountains for 3,000 feet. All the plants and grains of tropical climates succeed remarkably well, and the people have a good supply of domestic animals. The coasts abound with fish, large turtles, coral, and ambergris. The population amounts to about 115,000, more than half of which is composed of blacks. Bourbon contains a college and numerous schools, 16 churches, &c. Four newspapers are published on the island. *St. Denis*, the capital, contains 12,000 inhabitants: *St. Paul* is also a considerable town of 10,000, but neither have harbors. Bourbon was discovered in 1545, by Mascarenhas, a Portuguese navigator, whose name it bore until the French took possession of it in the next century, and gave it its present designation. It is now one of the principal colonies of the French.

#### MAURITIUS, OR ISLE OF FRANCE.

THIS island lies about 90 miles east-north-east of Bourbon, and contains 726 square miles. It seems to be of volcanic origin; the rocks are disposed in strata, which rise from the sea and form in the centre a high plateau. The mountains form three principal ridges, from 1,800 to 2,800 feet high, and their summits are in general pointed like cocks-combs. A coral bank surrounds the island, and the islets off the coast are all of the same formation. The soil, climate, and productions are similar to those of Bourbon, but sugar is the staple produce. The whole population is mostly of French extraction, and amounts to about 35,000: the blacks number 6,000. The British residents are few in comparison, and consist almost solely of merchants, soldiers, and government servants. *Port Louis* is the capital, and has 2,600 inhabitants. The only harbors are those of Port Louis, on the west, and Mahebourg, on the south-east. Dependent on the government of Mauritius are the small islands of Rodriguez, the Seychelles, Diego Garcia, &c. The island was discovered by the Dutch in 1595, who gave it its present name, in honor of the Stadtholder Maurice, Prince of Orange. It was subsequently possessed by the French, and raised to a naval station of the first importance. Its name was changed to Isle of France, and the island became capital of their possessions in the Indian Seas. It was captured in 1810 by the British, and at the peace of 1814 confirmed to that nation.

#### SOCOTRA.

THIS island lies near the Gulf of Aden, and is 70 miles long by 19 in breadth. It may be described as a pile of mountains surrounded by a fertile plain, forming a ring around its base. The island has been famous, from the earliest periods, for the production of the *aloe spicata*, which appears to thrive only in parched and otherwise barren places. The inhabitants depend principally for food on their date trees and their flocks. Socotra is inhabited by two distinct races: the one called Bedouins, inhabit the mountains and the high and western parts of the island; the other, who call themselves Arabs, are a mongrel race, the descendants of Arabs, Africans, Portuguese and others. But they all wear the same dress, and have adopt-

ed the same language and customs. They are all Mahomedans; and there is not throughout the island a single constituted authority. But though without chiefs and laws, good order is pretty well observed.

#### THE CAPE VERDE ISLANDS.

THIS numerous group is situated off Cape Verde, in the Atlantic, between  $14^{\circ}$  and  $18^{\circ}$  N. lat., and  $22^{\circ}$  and  $26^{\circ}$  W. long. The principal are Santiago, Mayo, Fogo, Brava, Boavista, Sal, Santo Nicolao, Raza, Branca, Santa Luzea, Santo Vicente, and Sant' Antonio. They are all volcanic, and Fogo emits much smoke from a crater 7,884 feet above the level of the sea. Rugged, rocky and arid, they produce almost nothing but salt, and some live stock. The islands belong to Portugal, and their governor-general resides at *Porto Praya*, in Santiago. Tanafal Bay, at the south-west part of Sant' Antonio, is the most convenient watering place connected with the islands.

#### FERNANDO PO, PRINCIPE, SAN THOME AND ANNABON.

THESE islands are situated in the Gulf of Guinea, directly south of the delta of the Kawara. *Fernando Po* is of an oblong form, 120 miles in circuit, and very mountainous: Clarence Peak, near its northern extremity, rises 10,655 feet. The mountains and valleys are covered with dense forests of large and valuable timber; but the climate is so unhealthy that it has been abandoned by the British colony recently settled upon it. It is, nevertheless, still inhabited by a lawless race, composed of slaves and malefactors from the neighboring coast, which is only 20 miles distant. *Principe*, nine and a half by six miles, is high and wooded. *San Thome* is large and fertile, but one half of it is mountainous, and towards its southern extremity it presents a mass of steep elevations, with abrupt craggy faces, and several pinacles rising like gigantic ten-pins. San Thome lies immediately under the equator. *Annabon*, four miles by two, is inhabited by a simple native race, and rises to a elevation of 3,000 feet. The last three islands are nominally subject to the crown of Portugal.

#### ST. HELENA.

THIS notorious island is situated in the Atlantic, 1,200 miles from the nearest coast of Africa, in lat.  $15^{\circ} 15'$  S., and long.  $5^{\circ} 49'$  W. It presents to the sea, throughout its circuit of twenty-eight miles, a perpendicular wall of rock from 600 to 1,200 feet high. On the summit is a fertile plain, interspersed with conical eminences and fertile valleys. The climate is agreeable and temperate, though moist. There are only four places of access from the sea, and at the largest of these is Jamestown, the capital, on the north-west side of the island. Nothing could exceed the variety of the vegetation, fruits and grains produced: it is a terrestrial paradise. Population about 5,000. The island was discovered on St. Helena's day (21st May, 1502,) by Juan de Nova Castella, the Portuguese Admiral, on his return from India; it was long in possession of the British East India Company, but has now been transferred to the crown. It has acquired great celebrity from being the place of confinement selected for Napoleon Bonaparte, who lived on it from 1815 to 1820, and was buried in one of its

valleys until 1840, when his remains were exhumed and transferred to Paris, where they now lie in the midst of his own friends.

## ASCENSION.

THIS small island, of volcanic origin, and of the most arid aspect, is situated in the Atlantic Ocean, in lat.  $7^{\circ} 57'$  S., and long.  $4^{\circ} 28'$  W. It is garrisoned by British troops, and fortified at every accessible point, to serve as a place of refreshment for vessels employed on the Coast of Africa. The shores abound with turtle, and numbers of these animals are now kept in ponds, from which they are purchased at a very small rate by visitors.

## THE ISLANDS OF TRISTAN DA CUNHA,

A SMALL group, in lat.  $37^{\circ}$  S., and long.  $13^{\circ}$  W., are three in number, rising like hills abruptly from the sea, to a great height. They were discovered in 1506, by the navigator whose name they bear, but remained uninhabited till the present century, when some British or Americans squatted upon them, and make a livelihood by cultivating the soil and furnishing supplies to the few ships that visit them.

CANARY ISLANDS.—(See p. 195.)

MADEIRA ISLANDS.—(See p. 204.)

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## OCEANICA.

THIS name has been adopted to designate the innumerable islands scattered over the great ocean which extends from the south-eastern shores of Asia to the western coast of America. It is generally considered by geographers as forming the fifth grand division of the world. Oceanica may be divided into three distinct portions, which we shall treat of separately, as *Malaysia*, *Australasia*, and *Polynesia*.

## I.—MALAYSIA.

THIS portion includes most of the islands of the Indian Archipelago, near the south-eastern coast of Asia. The group is called Malaysia, from the fact that the Malay race are the most prominent people of the Archipelago. They are situated between  $12^{\circ} 40'$  S. and  $20^{\circ}$  N. latitude, and between  $92^{\circ}$  and  $134^{\circ}$  E. longitude, entirely within the tropics; and possess, consequently, all the characteristics of other tropical countries—heat, moisture, and luxuriant vegetation. The islands are mountainous throughout, with a number of active and extinct volcanoes; yet there is much diversity in their physical character, and that of their inhabitants. The “Western Islands,” including Sumatra, Java, Bali, Sumbawa, and about two-thirds of the western portion of Borneo, as far as  $116^{\circ}$  E. longitude, are peculiar for their extreme fertility of soil and vegetable products. The civilized inhabitants have a similarity of manners, language, and modes of government; and are farther advanced than those of the other divisions, in arts, arms, and letters. Rice grows abundant, and is the principal food. East of this is a different



region, extending as far as  $134^{\circ}$  E. longitude, including Celebes, with the smaller islands about its coast, and the eastern portion of Borneo, up to  $3^{\circ}$  N. latitude. The soil of this portion of the Archipelago is less fruitful, and the people somewhat less advanced in civilization. They resemble each other in their institutions and manners, but differ much from their western neighbors. A third division of this group, extends from  $124^{\circ}$  to  $130^{\circ}$  E. longitude, differing essentially from the two former, in people, products, climate, &c. The eastern monsoon, which is dry and moderate in the west, is here rainy and boisterous; the western monsoon, which is rough and wet in the west, is here dry and moderate. The plants or animals of the two western divisions do not appear in this, which has productions peculiarly its own. The nutmeg and clove are indigenous, and grow nowhere else in perfection; but rice and other of the western vegetables seldom grow well. The people are still less civilized than those of the second division, and know nothing of letters. A fourth division embraces the islands extending from  $116^{\circ}$  to  $128^{\circ}$  E. longitude, and from  $4^{\circ}$  to  $10^{\circ}$  N. latitude, including the north-eastern corner of Borneo, the Island of Mindanao, and the Soa loo Archipelago. The manners and language of the people agree with each other, but differ from all the other divisions—the people are more civilized than those of the third, but less than those of the first. The fifth, and last division of this great group, is the well-known Philippine Islands, which extend from  $10^{\circ}$  to  $15^{\circ}$  N. latitude, differing essentially in climate and products from the others, and it is the only portion of Malaysia that lies within the hurricane region. The soil is of excellent quality, and favorable to the growth of sugar and tobacco; but does not produce the pepper of the first, the spices of the third, nor the fruits which are peculiar to the southern islands. The people are also distinct from all the others in manners, customs, and language.

The inhabitants of Malaysia constitute three distinct races, which are divided into numerous tribes. The first is of a fair or brown complexion, of various shades, with lank hair, and short, robust persons; their medium height, for men, is about five feet, two inches. Of this race, the fairest in complexion among them are the Dayaks, or Cannibals, of Borneo—an ugly-looking people, with long, coarse, black hair upon their heads, but with little hair upon their chins, or other parts of their bodies—their color approaches that of gold, but their complexions are seldom clear. The Javanese, who are among the most civilized, are the darkest of this race. The second is the Papuas or Puapuas, a woolly haired, black, or sooty colored race, resembling dwarfish African negroes; their greatest stature is not above five feet in the men, and their frames are puny, and in many other respects they differ physically from the African negro, stamping them clearly and distinctly as an inferior race—they have little energy, and when they come in contact with the fair race they are hunted down like wild beasts, and driven to their natural fastnesses in the mountains. The third race is nearly or quite as black as the Papuas, but their hair is lank and not curly. Their features resemble those of the Hindoos, and they are supposed to be the aboriginals of the larger islands of the Archipelago. They are found in the Philippines and Celebes, also in Australia, New Guinea, and the Moluccas. They are completely barbarous, and when not reduced to slavery, preserve a general similarity of habits. These several races are divided into numerous tribes, scattered over the whole Archipelago, under various names, speaking various languages, and professing different religions, among which the principal are Islamism, Buddhism, and Brahminism. The foreigners

are composed of Portuguese, Spaniards, Dutch and Chinese; and Christianity in various forms has been introduced by the missionaries.

The forms of government are as various as the people, being generally petty despotisms, and monarchies more or less limited; some are elective and some are hereditary. The Dutch possess the Island of Java, the Moluccas, and a great part of Sumatra, over which they exercise a domineering influence. The Spaniards possess the island of Luzon and others in the Phillipine group, and the Portuguese possess a part of the island of Timor.

The principal exports consist of nutmegs, cloves, pepper, cinnamon, rice, coffee, tin, gold, diamonds, pearls, ivory, sandalwood, indigo, edible birds' nests, cotton, sugar, tobacco, camphor, turpentine, betel leaf, ambergris, coal, corn, horses, furs, lint and wool, whale oil, balein, tortoise shell, holothuries, birds of paradise, cocoa, ginger, sago, canes, areca nuts, bamboos, bread-fruit, woods of various kinds, &c. The imports are chiefly opium, salt, cloths, silks, porcelain, copper, oil, soap, wine, liquors, fire arms and other weapons, gunpowder, and various other manufactures. The principal trading places are, Batavia, Samarang and Sourabaya, in Java; Rhio; Amboyne; Coupang, in Timor; Macassar, in Celebes; Manilla, in Luzon; Borneo; and Acheen, in Sumatra.

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## II.—AUSTRALASIA.

THIS portion of Oceanica extends from  $1^{\circ}$  N. to  $55^{\circ}$  S. latitude, and from  $112^{\circ}$  to  $180^{\circ}$  E. longitude, including *Australia* or *New Holland*; *Van Dieman's Land*; *New Zealand*; *Papua* or *New Guinea*; *New Britain*; *New Ireland*; *Solomon Islands*; *New Caledonia*; *New Hebrides*; *Queen Charlotte's Islands*; *New Hanover*; *Admiralty Isles*, and many smaller islands scattered over the intervening seas.

### AUSTRALIA.

AUSTRALIA, the principal island of this division, lies between  $10^{\circ}$  and  $40^{\circ}$  S. latitude, and  $112^{\circ}$  and  $154^{\circ}$  E. longitude; greatest length 2,400 miles, greatest breadth 1,970; area 3,000,000 square English miles. The interior of this great island is unknown, except on the S. E. corner, from Spencer's Gulf to Moreton Bay, and a small district in the S. W. The entire east coast is traversed by ridges of steep mountains, at distances varying from 30 to 90 miles in the interior, leaving a strip of cultivable land along the coast, watered by a few short and inconsiderable rivers. The southern coast is low and sandy, with but few eminences, and no mountains. The western is more hilly and broken; and the north-western presents an irregular range of detached rocky hills, which rise abruptly from large bare plains; on the north, from Wessel's point to Cambridge Gulf, the coast is flat and wooded, and interspersed with low hills, having generally flat summits.

The climate varies; the northern portion, lying in the torrid zone, partakes of its general character, extreme heat; but about two-thirds of Australia lies in the temperate zone; and its climate in the south is usually more temperate. Apart, however, from the effects of latitude, the temperature of the N. and S. varies greatly and suddenly, according to the course of the wind, which, coming from the interior of the country in either direction, raises the temperature sometimes  $25^{\circ}$  in a space of fifty minutes; from this fact it is supposed that the wind passes over extensive deserts of burning

sand not yet discovered. The Australian Alps, as they are called, are, however, constantly covered with snow, and it sometimes occurs that the wind from them scatters a little snow in the low country. Rains are irregular, and sometimes it occurs that for one, two and three years together no rain falls, and the earth is dependent upon dews alone for fructifying moisture. These excessive seasons of drought are generally succeeded by long and heavy floods of rain, which gradually decrease, and after a few years cease altogether, and another drought prevails. The climate is, however, healthy, and with the exception of ophthalmia, epidemic diseases are unknown.

The vegetable products of Australia are to a great extent peculiar to the country. The great mass belongs to the natural orders, proteaceæ, myrtaceæ, and compositæ; but the most common genera are the eucalyptus and acacia—above 100 species of the former have been discovered, most of which are trees remarkable for their great size and height. Of the acacias nearly 100 of the leafless species have been observed. Culinary vegetables have been introduced and thrive; the tropical and European fruits are in abundance; and the Australian flora embraces about 4,200 species, many of which are of remarkable richness.

The aborigines of Australia seem to be of the Ethiopic or black race, yet they differ in many respects from the African negro. The hair is straight, long and black, with the exception of those of the southern coast, whose hair is woolly. Their features are more regular than the African; the lips are not thick, the forehead is high but narrow, and contracts to a point at the crown; the nose is large but not flat, sometimes it approaches the Roman in form; the beard is bushy and black, and the complexion generally of a chocolate brown, but sometimes nearly or quite black. They are tall and slender; quick rather than strong; go entirely naked, and have no idea of arts or manufactures, save in the construction of nets of grass, and rude implements of war and the chase—one of their weapons is the *bomerang*, a singular projectile, which if it miss the mark returns to the spot whence it was thrown. They live in burroughs or holes, have no agriculture, no flocks, no division of property; but subsist on fish, roots, gums, &c. Contiguous tribes speak different dialects, and scarce know of each others' existence, yet all seem to be of the same race, and all alike unsusceptible of civilization; they possess the form of man, the powers of speech, and have an idea of good and evil spirits; but beyond these there is little to distinguish them from the brute; being in fact rather gregarious than social. Several British colonies have been established on the coast, and most of the foreign residents are British subjects. The island is divided into four distinct portions, viz: *Northern*, *Western*, and *Southern Australia*, and *New South Wales*, although no distinct political administrations are established.

The most important division is *New South Wales*, which embraces the entire eastern coast with the islands adjacent. The colony was established in 1788, as a penal station for criminal convicts; but after the general peace of 1814, public attention was directed to Australia as a suitable place for emigrants of a better description, since which the population has rapidly increased. In 1788 the colony established at Sydney consisted of 1,030 persons; in 1847 it had increased to 205,009. The convicts now sent are all placed on Norfolk Island;\* and although the country has been largely

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\* Norfolk Island is 900 miles E. N. E. from Sidney: it has about 11,000 acres of beautiful and fertile land.

indebted to their labor, according to an English writer, "it may yet be doubted whether or not the value of their forced industry is not more than counterbalanced by the moral contamination which they have communicated to the whole society."

SYDNEY, the capital, is situated partly in a narrow valley and partly on the sides of gentle slopes rising from the shores of two of the branches of Port Jackson, named Sydney Cove and Darling Harbor. The town has an English appearance, but with little of splendor. It has a fine harbor, fifteen miles long, and ships come to the wharves and discharge their cargoes into the warehouses. The present population is 62,000.

The executive power of the province is vested in a governor and council, consisting of the colonial secretary and treasurer, and the bishop of Australia. The legislative council consists of the governor and executive council, the chief-justice, attorney general, the chief officers of the customs, the auditor general, and seven private gentlemen of the colony, who are appointed by the crown for life. The laws of England govern the colony, except so far as they may be affected by the acts of the local legislature.

*South Australia* was, in 1834, granted by an act of parliament for the purpose of establishing a colony of honest and industrious emigrants; but after vast expense on the part of the company, and immense privation on the part of the immigrants, the whole scheme proved abortive, on account of the inefficiency of the soil for agricultural purposes; and the commissioners were at length reduced to the necessity of applying to government for assistance, which was given them in a vote of credit for £155,000; and although the province has not been abandoned, its existence is little more than nominal.

*Western Australia* was established as a province in 1829, but in 1839 its whole population amounted to but 2,154, of whom 1,302 were males. Its existence is of even less importance than that of the southern division.

*North Australia* forms the northern part of the continent, extending from the Gulf of Carpentaria westward. The only settlement yet established is at Port Essington, on the north side of Coburg Peninsula, where the town of *Victoria* was founded in 1838.

#### VAN DIEMAN'S LAND.

VAN DIEMAN'S LAND, or TASMANIA, an island south of the south-east point of Australia, lies between  $41^{\circ} 20'$  and  $43^{\circ} 40'$  S. latitude, and  $144^{\circ} 40'$  and  $148^{\circ} 20'$  E. longitude; area 24,000 square miles, or a little less than Ireland. This has been employed as a penal station by Great Britain. The island is much broken with irregular and isolated mountains, and diversified with lofty table-lands and extensive and fertile valleys and plains. In the south the scenery is rugged and bold; hills rising on hills, and all densely covered with trees and verdure. The middle of the island is more softened in its aspect; vast and beautiful plains, intersected with streams, spread out for a great distance, and on the north the country is diversified with hill and dale, woodland and cultivated plains. The west has been as yet but little explored, but it is said to be rugged and mountainous. The geology of the island exhibits large quantities of silicious matter and petrifications: fossil vegetable remains entirely converted into silicious matter and susceptible of the finest polish, are sometimes found, and petrified wood is taken from the head of the Tamar river. Flint, hone-stone, schistus, wood-opal, bloodstone, jasper and cat's-eye are found in many places. The climate is temperate, though it sometimes happens that the thermometer reaches for a

short time in the summer (December, January, and February,)  $100^{\circ}$ , and even  $110^{\circ}$ ; this, however, never lasts long, and is generally followed by refreshing showers. The sea-breeze also lessens the summer heat, and produces an agreeable temperature. In June, July and August, which constitute the winter months, frosts often occur, and considerable snow falls, but it never lies long on the ground. The climate is considered salubrious.

The aborigines of Van Dieman's Land are even beneath the Australians in intellectual capacity; and physically more nearly resemble the African negro, especially in the black complexion and woolly hair; they are, however, gradually disappearing, and will probably soon become extinct. The white population in 1838, was, of free settlers, 26,055; of convicts, 18,133.—Total population, including aborigines, 45,846.

About two-thirds of the population are engaged in agriculture; the remainder in commerce, arts, and manufactures. The import tonnage of the island in 1838, was 64,454, and the export 63,392.

*Hobart Town*, the capital and port of entry, is situated on the right bank of the Derwent, about 20 miles from Storm Bay; it is handsomely situated, with a good bay for the largest vessels. Population, in 1838, 14,382.

The government of the province is precisely similar to that of New South Wales, having a lieutenant-governor instead of a governor.

#### NEW-ZEALAND.

THIS group consists of two large islands, and one smaller one, lying in the South Pacific Ocean, between  $34^{\circ} 25'$  and  $47^{\circ} 19'$  S. latitude, and  $166^{\circ}$  and  $179^{\circ}$  E. longitude, about 1,400 miles south-east from New South Wales—Total area, about 87,400 square miles. The northernmost island, called *New-Ulster*, or *Eaheinomawe*, is about 540 miles long; but the northern half is broken into a series of irregular and narrow peninsulas. The southern portion is more compact, and varies from 50 to 200 miles in breadth. The next island, lying south-west, is about the same length, of more regular form, and varying from 50 to 150 miles in breadth. It is called *New-Munster*, or *Tawai Poenamoo*. The southernmost island is called *New-Leinster*, or *Stewarts' Island*: it is about 50 miles long, and 40 broad.

A continuous mountain chain skirts the south-eastern coast of the northern and the western coast of the middle islands, intersected by beautiful valleys, and watered by fine rivers. There are also several detached mountains in various parts, two of which—Mount Egmont and Mount Edgumbe—are volcanic. Most of the mountains are clothed with forests of evergreens; but some are barren, or covered only with ferns. Between the mountains and the sea, on both sides, are vast plains of good land, interspersed with forests, and accessible by numerous bays and navigable rivers; the coasts of the northern islands are, however, bounded by a belt of sand-hills, within which is an extent of low land covered with reedy vegetation, and in wet weather swampy.

The climate is constantly humid, but the temperature on the coasts is very equable, the thermometer seldom rising above  $85^{\circ}$  in summer, or falling below  $45^{\circ}$  in winter. The rains generally fall throughout the year in refreshing showers, especially in New-Ulster and New-Munster; they are rather more prevalent in winter, but never continue long. At this season westerly winds prevail—they commence in the morning, and gradually increase to a gale, but subside by sunset to a placid calm. These winds

render the western coast dangerous, consequently they are little frequented by shipping.

The forests of New-Zealand are superbly beautiful, on account of their thrift, as well as the variety of their trees. There the pine, of every variety, grows to its utmost perfection; also the palm-trees, and others. The indigenous fruits are few, but many have been introduced with success. There are several varieties of the sweet potato, which the natives hold in religious veneration. The common potato, which was introduced by Captain Cook, and many other European residents, is now cultivated successfully. Indian corn and wheat thrive exceedingly; as also grapes, strawberries, and raspberries. Flowers are very numerous and various, some of which are of great beauty.

The New-Zealanders are a branch of the Malay family, but are divided into three classes: white, or copper-colored, brown, and black. The first-named form a noble race, often above six feet in stature, strong and active, well-formed, of dignified appearance, pleasing countenance, approaching the European in feature, and with glossy black, curling hair. The women are graceful, and sometimes very beautiful. The other classes, and particularly those adjoining the East Cape, are short in stature, with lank, frizzly hair, a brown complexion, almost approaching black, and of unpleasing countenance—their women are masculine in appearance.

In their general character, the New-Zealanders combine with their savage vices many of the fairest virtues which grace the human mind, and exhibit a natural intelligence and fineness of sentiment unknown to any other race of savages. This imparts to them a natural politeness and dignity of manners, and enables them to appreciate the beauties of poetry, music, and the fine arts, in all of which they are enthusiasts; they possess extraordinary qualities of wit and eloquence, and their language is rich and sonorous. They possess a keen sense of self-respect, and resent the slightest insult offered to their persons; but unfortunately *revenge* is with them the highest point of honor, and this they pursue with the utmost cruelty and ferocity—making a meal of their slain enemies. As communities, they are almost constantly engaged in ferocious war, seeking always the extermination of their enemies; yet, as individuals, their attachment to kindred is unbounded, and the rudest savage among them will melt to tears on meeting a friend after a long or dangerous separation. Their war canoes exhibit fine specimens of carving; yet they are ignorant of most of the common arts, and know little of agriculture. Astronomy is quite a study with them; they have given names to the stars, and divided them into constellations; they are free from idolatry, believe in a future existence, in a Supreme God, and a devil—to the latter of whom they attribute the evils of life. Since 1814, several Christian missions have been attempted, and some successfully established on the islands; and the British government is now making strenuous efforts to extend her authority over the whole, having, by the aid of joint-stock companies, already established several settlements.

The native population is estimated at above 160,000, of whom at least 100,000 are on the northern islands.

#### NEW-GUINEA.

Is situated between 0° and 10° S. latitude, and 131° and 149° E. longitude. It is of irregular form, indented with deep bays; and the western portion forms a considerable peninsula. It is very mountainous, especially about the northern coast; yet it is said to possess a large extent of rich and

magnificent country. No civilized colony has yet been planted upon it, and the interior is almost unknown. The people are of the Papua, or Malaysian negro race, and are described as hideously ugly—with large eyes, flat noses, thin lips, woolly hair, and black, shiny skin; by way of ornament, they pass bones, or pieces of wood, through the cartilage of the nose, and entangle their curly locks, like a mop, to an immense size—they build habitations, and wear wrappers around the waist. It is said that there are miserable Haraforos in the interior, who live in trees, but who cultivate the ground, and bring their produce to the coast. The trade of the coast is monopolized by the Ceramese, (from Ceram, a neighboring island,) who have inspired the natives with a hatred to all other foreigners; and they obtain for a nominal price, massoy-bark, nutmegs, trepany, tortoise-shell, pearls, edible birds'-nests, birds of paradise, and other articles. The coast is surrounded by vast numbers of small islands, all occupied by the same race, except in the north-west, where the Chinese and brown Malays have introduced themselves.

#### THE ARRU ISLES, &c.

The *Arru Islands* lie about 40 miles south-west; they are a considerable group of small islands, closely packed together, and inhabited by a mixture of the brown and black Malaysians, of industrious habits, mild disposition, and honest. They are larger and stronger than the Javanese or Malays; their hair is short and curled, but not woolly; they are mostly Pagans, but there are also many Christians and Mahomedans among them. West of these is a group called the *Key Islands*, the largest of which is 45 miles in length by four in breadth, mountainous, and covered with trees.

The remaining islands of Australasia are in groups north-east and south-east from New-Guinea, but are of little importance; the former are inhabited by varieties of the same negro races, but in those of the south-east, the negroes are mixed with the Polynesians. These groups include the *Admiralty Islands*, *New-Hanover*, *New-Ireland*, *New-Britain*, *Bougainville*, *New-Georgia*, *Louisiade*, *Queen Charlotte's Archipelago*, *New-Hebrides*, and *New-Caledonia*. The latter is 250 miles long by 30 broad, and resembles Australia in its topography, having many barren and rocky mountains, interspersed with fertile valleys. The people are represented as a better race, apparently mixed; they are strong and well made, courteous and friendly. Between New-Caledonia and Australia is the *Coral Sea*, filled with reefs, low islands, and shoals.

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### III.—POLYNESIA.

THIS portion of Oceanica includes the numerous islands scattered over the Pacific Ocean from Asia, Malaysia, and Australasia on the west and south-west to the western shores of America. They are divisible into three classes: the mountainous, the hilly, and the low coralline; but with this exception, there is a general similarity of character throughout the whole. The mountainous islands are generally extremely beautiful; the bases of the mountains are adorned with fertile valleys, where grow the stately bread-fruit tree, the cocoa nut, and other topical productions. The mountains are mostly volcanic, some of which are constantly active; their elevations vary from 2,000 to 13,000 feet, and upon the highest summits, the evidence of their having been once beneath the waters of the ocean, is found in numerous coral formations, shells, and other marine substances. The second

class of islands is hilly, the highest elevations reaching about 500 feet, and all extremely beautiful and luxuriant. The third, or coralline class, the bases of which are formed by the coral insect, is low; generally but a few feet above the level of the sea, with thin soil and little vegetation. The Friendly Islands are, however, exceptions to this general character of sterility, for, although they are of the same formation, the soil is better, and vegetation more luxuriant. They are generally small, though Tongatabou is 100 miles in circumference.

Though the greater part of these islands are within the tropics, and the climate necessarily warm and little subject to change, the heat is softly tempered through the influence of the vast body of water that surrounds them, and the temperature thus rendered delightful. And the soil, especially in the volcanic islands, is so fertile and productive, as to yield almost spontaneously all that is requisite for the subsistence of man. The bread-fruit tree supplies food, timber, gum, and cloth, which is made from the fibres of its bark. The cocoa-nut affords food, drink, cloth, and oil; there are plantains, bananas, yams, sweet potatoes, taro-root, sugar-cane, and various other roots and fruits abundant and nutritious. There are few native animals, but birds of various kinds, and fish in profusion.

The Polynesians seem to have sprung from the Malay family, and a general resemblance pervades them all, varying necessarily with climate, habits, &c. They are generally short and robust, with large limbs, but small hands and feet, face tapering from the cheek bones to the forehead and the chin, eyes black, small and obliquely set, like the Chinese, nose broad but not flat, mouth wide, hair straight, coarse and black, and complexion varying from a sallow white, through various grades of olive and brown to nearly a black. The custom of tattooing, or working indelible figures into the skin, is prevalent with them all, and sometimes the complexion is almost absorbed, so completely do they cover their faces in the process. A similarity of habits, customs, religion, language, &c., has been found to exist among them all; addicted to the usual vices of the child of nature, and carrying on their clannish wars with savage impetuosity, yet in many instances possessing a gentleness of manners, and exhibiting great ingenuity and taste in the construction of their implements and canoes. They have all the same form of government, the authority of which is generally divided among a number of hereditary chiefs, though there are also sometimes a sort of kings, or superior chiefs to whom the others are subject, and to whom they pay great respect, and even reverence. In all cases, the chiefs and their families are excessively haughty, and hold the people in the most abject humility.

In their religion, they are exceedingly superstitious; every family has its idol, or guardian spirit, independent of the supreme, whom they call *Atooa*, and to whom they apply only in times of great moment, believing him to be too exalted to be troubled with matters of small importance. To this deity they sometimes make human sacrifices. They generally believe in a future existence, the felicity of which is regulated according to the good works of the individual while on earth; but they have no idea of a future hell; sickness and accidents they regard as judgments, and employ their priests in such cases to pacify the deity.

The numerous islands embraced in this portion of the globe are mostly collected in groups, yet many are scattered and isolated in the vast expanse of ocean. The following classification includes them all:—1st. The *Bonin* or *Arzobispo Islands*. 2d. The *Ladrone* or *Marian Islands*. 3d. The *Caro-*



*line Islands.* 4th. The *Feejee Islands.* 5th. The *Tonga* or *Friendly Islands.* 6th. *Navigator's* or *Samoa Islands.* 7th. *Cook's*, or the *Hervey Islands.* 8th. The *Society, Georgian, and Low Islands.* 9th. The *Austral Isles.* 10th. The *Marquesas* and *Washington Islands.* 11th. The *Hawaiian* or *Sandwich Islands.* 12th. The *Kermadec Isles*; and 13th. The *scattered and isolated islands.* Having described the general characteristics of Polynesia, we will proceed to a brief notice of the several divisions:

#### 1.—THE BONIN ISLANDS

Form a group 89 in number, lying between  $24^{\circ}$  and  $30^{\circ}$  north latitude,  $140^{\circ}$  and  $150^{\circ}$  east longitude. On some of these Japanese and British subjects have settled, who carry on a contraband trade with Japan, or engage in the whale fishery. East of this group are scattered the islands of Magellan's Archipelago, and south-east are a number of volcanic islands.

#### 2.—THE LADRONE, OR MARIAN ISLANDS.

This group lies between  $12^{\circ}$  and  $21^{\circ}$  north latitude, and  $144^{\circ}$  and  $148^{\circ}$  east longitude. They belong to the Spanish government of the Philippines; but only the five southernmost are inhabited. They are of volcanic origin, but contain many fertile valleys.

#### 3.—THE CAROLINE ISLANDS,

Include the Pelew, Ralick, Radick, and Marshall's Islands, extending from  $133^{\circ}$  to  $173^{\circ}$  east longitude, and from  $3^{\circ}$  to  $17^{\circ}$  north latitude. They are classed into 46 groups, including several hundred isles and islets. Their productions are generally the same as the other islands of Polynesia, except that bread fruit abounds only in the eastern portion. They are much exposed to tempests and hurricanes; many of them are hilly and fertile, and great numbers, especially at the east and south-east, are of the coral formation—low, and reefy. The inhabitants are described as the most courteous, and least vicious, of all the islanders of Polynesia.

#### 4.—THE FEEJEE ISLANDS

Are situated between  $15^{\circ}$  and  $20^{\circ}$  south latitude, and the meridian of  $180^{\circ}$  passes through the centre of the group. They consist of two large, two small, and fifteen smaller, besides numerous islets and coral rocks. The principal islands are inhabited by a race of negroes, resembling the Harafors of Malaysia. They are somewhat civilized, but nevertheless fond of war, perfidious, ferocious, and habitual cannibals. To gratify their relish for human flesh, they will fight, murder, kidnap, and, it is said, actually rob the grave. The several islands are divided into petty states, which are continually at war with each other. The total population is perhaps 50,000.

#### 5.—THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS

Are numerous, but only four are of any considerable size. *Tonga*, or *Tongatabou*, the largest, is about 100 miles in circumference, low, but of good soil, and fruitful. The inhabitants are of a dark brown complexion, and exceedingly well-formed, but ferocious, and treacherous in their habits, wherever they have the power; notwithstanding, their demeanor towards

Capt. Cook was so affable as to induce him to give to the islands the name they now bear. Population about 60,000.

#### 6.—THE NAVIGATORS' ISLANDS

Lie north-east of the Feejee and the Friendly Islands, the parallel of  $14^{\circ}$  south, and the meridian of  $170^{\circ}$  west, passing through the centre of the group. They are eight in number: mountainous, and may be seen at a distance of 60 or 70 miles. The mountains are clothed with forests, and the valleys beautiful and fertile; in one of the mountains is the crater of an extinct volcano. The inhabitants are of colossal stature, finely-formed, and of light complexion, but as barbarous as their neighbors. The largest of this group is 350 miles in circumference. Population of the group, probably, 100,000.

#### 7.—COOK'S OR HERVEY ISLANDS,

Lie between  $18^{\circ}$  and  $23^{\circ}$  south latitude, and  $160^{\circ}$  west longitude. They are seven in number, but of little importance. The largest is 30 miles in circumference, mountainous, and surrounded with reefs. Through the influence of Christian Missionaries, the inhabitants have made considerable advancement in civilization.

#### 8.—THE SOCIETY: ST. GEORGE'S OR GEORGIAN, AND LOW ISLANDS,

Form an extensive group, situated between  $14^{\circ}$  and  $25^{\circ}$  south latitude, and  $134^{\circ}$  and  $157^{\circ}$  west longitude. The western portion embraces the Society, the central the Georgian, and the eastern the Low Islands, including the Dangerous Archipelago. *Otaheite*, one of the Society Islands, and the largest of the whole, is about 140 miles in circumference; it is formed of two peninsulas, connected by a narrow neck, and each rising gradually from the shore to mountain peaks in the centre, 6,000 or 7,000 feet above the level of the sea. The highest summit contains a lake of yellow water, and is evidently the crater of an extinct volcano. The valleys and intervening ridges are clothed with forests and verdure, producing all the usual fruits of the climate. The inhabitants are above the middle height, of a clear copper complexion; and the chiefs and women of the higher class are tall and well-formed, the latter with soft and delicate skin, black and expressive eyes, white and regular teeth, jet black hair, which they generally ornament with flowers; and an easy, graceful gait. Yet, notwithstanding that they have been much Christianized, and taught to a considerable degree the elements of a literary education, their modes of life have been but little improved or altered since their first discovery. The Otaheitans amount to about 20,000, under the religious care of eight Missionaries. In 1842, the French flag was hoisted on this island, but it has since been declared to be a native sovereignty, and restored to its rights. The other islands composing the Society and Georgian group are similar in character, but less important as to size. They are all mountainous and volcanic. The Low Islands consist of a few hilly islands, and 70 or 80 groups of islets, inclosing lagoons, besides numerous reefs of coral, scarce above water, forming the Dangerous Archipelago.

#### 9.—THE AUSTRAL ISLANDS

Consist of a long chain, extending away south of the Society and Low

Islands, and may, perhaps, be considered a part of the same group. They are high and fertile.

#### 10.—THE MARQUESAS, OR WASHINGTON ISLANDS,

Are of the mountainous class, and some of their elevations are about 6,000 feet above the sea. The valleys are extremely fruitful and picturesque, watered by numerous streams, and enlivened by cascades from the craggy hill-sides. The centre of the group lies in about  $9^{\circ} 30'$  south latitude, and  $139^{\circ} 30'$  west longitude. The men are tall and finely formed, but the women are described as inferior, ill-formed, and immodest in conduct, but of handsome features. The complexion is a very light copper color, but the practice of tattooing is common with them, and sometimes completely covers the face. In ordinary intercourse they are open and friendly, but in war brutally ferocious, and eagerly drink the blood of their enemies. France took possession of these islands also, but relinquished them again to the natives.

#### 11.—THE HAWAIIAN, OR SANDWICH ISLANDS,

Are a group of thirteen, situated between  $19^{\circ}$  and  $22^{\circ}$  N. latitude, and  $155^{\circ}$  and  $160^{\circ}$  W. longitude. *Owhyhee*, or Hawaii, the largest island in the group, and indeed the largest in Polynesia, is about 100 miles long, by 70 or 80 broad, forming an irregular triangle. It contains three lofty volcanic mountains, besides the largest active volcano in the known world. The highest elevation of the three is 13,764 feet, and all exhibit numerous small dormant craters; at the height of 12,700 feet a vast plain stretches out covered with sand, gravel, stones and scoræ, above which rise eleven peaks forming the summits of mountains; but the most interesting of this vast volcanic field is the *Kiluea*, differing from all other volcanoes; it is situated at the base of Mouna-roa, about 3,800 feet above the sea, and forms a vast pit of an irregular oval shape 1,000 feet deep, with almost perpendicular sides. "The bottom consists of half cooled scoræ, intermixed with earth in igneous fusion, and gases, constantly effervescent, boiling, spouting and rolling in all directions like the waves of the sea in a storm, and dashing like a wind-driven surf against the edges of its cauldron. At the south-west point is the *haulemau-mau* or great abyss, to which the Hawaiians used to consign the bones of their chiefs, and where they made their offerings to the goddess Pele, who presides over the spot. This exhibits a most frightful area of bubbling red hot lava, incessantly changing its level, sometimes rolling in low, curling waves, with broken masses of cooled crust, to a side, and again turning them furiously back with a terrific noise. Around are blocks of lava, scoræ and slags, in every variety of form and combination; here forming deep and rugged precipices of numerous layers, there all dispersed, cracked and broken. In extent, grandeur and intensity of action, Kiluea is unrivalled among volcanoes. In 1787 the first recorded eruption occurred; and in May and June, 1840,\* the molten lava streamed down its sides to the sea, four miles, for three weeks, attended with earthquakes, and illuming the atmosphere for a hundred miles around.

Nearly all the islands of this group are hilly and mountainous, and exhibit the contrast of luxuriant verdure and volcanic sterility. The soil is generally exceedingly rich and fruitful, producing yams, taro, sweet potatoes, plantains, bread fruit, sugar-cane, nono, turmeric, ginger, cotton, and sandal-wood, besides European and West India fruits and vegetables.

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\* Described by Mr. Coan in the *Missionary Herald*, July, 1841.

The people are of moderate stature, but the chiefs and women of the higher class are remarkable for their great size and obesity, which is regarded as a great personal beauty, and is obtained by excessive gluttony. Their complexion is olive.

When first discovered by Captain Cook, the people of these islands were in the same state of barbarism with those of the other islands, but the American missionaries have made great efforts among them, and by the introduction of Christianity and the habits of civilization, have done much to raise them from their barbarous degradation, although they are as yet by no means a civilized people. The missionaries have reduced their language to writing, and given them translations of the bible in their own tongue; they have also established a press, and issue a periodical journal called the *Hawaiian Monitor*, which they fill with religious, historical and other matter, calculated to interest the people. Yet it is doubtful whether the pure race can ever be brought to perfect civilization; indeed, the same effect which a contact with the whites seems to produce on all savage races, viz: the gradual decay of the latter, is visible here. In 1832 the population of the inhabited islands was 129,814—in 1836 it was reduced to 108,302, showing a decrease in four years of 21,421; and a consequent approach to extinction that is rather rapid than gradual.

*Honolulu*, in the island of Oahu, is the seat of government and trade. The commerce is in the hands of the Americans, and is directed chiefly to the west coast of America.

#### 12.—THE KERMADEC ISLANDS,

Are a group of the small inhabited islands, and a number of desert islets and reefs, situated in latitude  $30^{\circ}$  S., about midway between the Friendly Islands and New Zealand.

#### 13.—THE SCATTERED ISLANDS.

These are numerous, and are found in almost every portion of the Pacific Ocean. They partake of the general characteristics of those already described, both in formation and people; and possess no peculiarities worthy of especial note. Pitcairn Island, celebrated as the spot where some of the mutineers of the *Bounty* took refuge and established a colony in 1789, is only three miles in length by one in breadth; it is volcanic, but has a good soil. Its village, named Adamstown, on the north side, is in latitude  $25^{\circ} 4'$  S., and longitude  $130^{\circ} 16'$  W.

To the westward of the Sandwich Islands extends a long chain of scattered islets and rocks, in the following order: Bird's Isle; Necker; Basse Française; Gardner; Two Brothers' Rock; Maro Reef; Laysan; Lisianski; Philadelphia; Pearl and Hermes Bank; Cure; Byers; Patrocinio; Morell; Roco de Plata Crespo; Roco de Oro of the Spaniards; Roco de Oro or Lot's Wife; Colunas; Ganges; Week's Reef; Krusenstern Rock, to the south-west of Laysan; and Mellish Bank, north of Byers.

Between Gilbert's Islands and the New Hebrides on the west; the Feejee, Friendly, and Navigator's islands, on the south; the Society, Low Islands, and Marquesas, on the south-east; and the Sandwich Islands on the north, the following may be mentioned: Howland, Arthur, Kemin's, Jervis, Birney, Phoenix, Sydney, Duke of York's, Duke of Clarence's, Solitaria, Danger or St. Bernardo, Duke Alexander I., Humphrey, Suvarof, Peregrino, Penrhyn, Woodstock, Caroline, New-York, Starbuck, Volunteer, Maldon, Brook Bunker, Christmas, Palmyra, Washington, Fanning, Walker's, Smith's.

To the eastward of the Low Islands :—Oeno, Gambier, Pitcairn, Elizabeth, Ducie's, Easter, Sala-y-Gomez, Waihou. Gambier Islands consist of five large, and several smaller islands, all within one reef, through which there is a navigable ship channel to the lagoon. The largest rises 1,428 feet above the level of the sea. Easter Island, or Vahou,  $20^{\circ}$  E. of the Low Islands, in the direct route between them and Cape Horn, is only 20 miles in circumference, but is bold and rocky, strewed with lava, and contains numerous volcanic craters, which are now extinct. It formerly contained some traces of ancient civilization, in the shape of colossal statues, representing, though rudely, the upper parts of the human body ; but these have now disappeared.

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## ANTARCTIC REGIONS.

DURING the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, cosmographers entertained the opinion that there must be a continent towards the south pole, to counterbalance the mass of land which occupies so large a portion of the northern hemisphere ; and, accordingly, in the maps of those centuries, this imaginary continent is represented under the name of *Terra-Australis-Incognita*. This notion continued to prevail till after the middle of the eighteenth century, when it was dispelled by the result of Cook's second voyage ; that illustrious navigator having, in the years 1772–3–4–5, traversed the Southern Ocean, in different directions, round the globe, without discovering any other land than the Island of Georgia and Sandwich Land.

In 1816, however, Captain William Smith discovered a group of lofty snow-capped islands, to which he gave the name of New South Shetland, to the S. E. of Cape Horn. A few years later, Captain Weddell discovered the New Orkneys, in the same quarter, and in 1823 penetrated to  $74^{\circ} 15'$  S., the farthest point yet reached. Trinity Land was discovered by the Russian navigator, Bellinghausen ; and in 1829, two small islands, named Peter and Alexander, between  $69^{\circ}$  and  $70^{\circ}$  S. latitude, were also discovered by the Russians. In 1831, Captain Biscoe discovered Enderby's Land, under the Antarctic Circle, S. E. of the Cape of Good Hope ; and in the following year, Graham's Land, Biscoe Isles, and Adelaide Island, in the same latitude, but lying due south of Cape Horn.

In January, 1839, a French expedition, under Captain D'Urville, discovered a tract of land, extending about 150 miles, between  $66^{\circ}$  and  $67^{\circ}$  S. latitude, and  $136^{\circ}$  and  $142^{\circ}$  E. longitude, with a medium elevation of 1,300 feet above the horizon. The snow and ice, which covered it, gave its surface almost a level appearance ; but little else was observable than ravines, inlets, and projections, which presented not a single trace of vegetation. Captain D'Urville named his discovery *Terre Adelie* (*Adelia's Land*.) On the very same day, an American scientific expedition discovered land in  $64^{\circ} 50'$  S. latitude, and  $154^{\circ} 18'$  E. longitude ; and one of the ships, the *Vincennes*, Captain Wilkes, ran down the coast, from  $154^{\circ} 18'$  to  $97^{\circ} 45'$  E. longitude, about 1,700 miles, within a short distance of the land, being often so near as to get soundings with a few fathoms of line. In February, 1839, Captain Balleny, of London, discovered the Balleny Islands, the central one of which lies in  $66^{\circ} 44'$  S. latitude, and  $163^{\circ} 11'$  E. long.

In 1840, an expedition was fitted out in Britain, under the command of Captain James Ross, R. N., for the purpose of making scientific, and particularly magnetic, observations in the Southern Ocean, and of ascertaining the position of the southern magnetic pole. Captain Ross first sailed to Hobart Town, in Van Dieman's Land, and in November, 1840, left that place for his first summer's research in the Antarctic regions. He first steered eastward to New Zealand, and leaving the Auckland Islands on the 12th of December, he proceeded to the southward, and entered the Antarctic circle on the 1st of January, 1841, where his farther progress was stopped by the pack-edge of the ice. On the 5th of January, he succeeded in entering the ice about 100 miles farther east, in latitude  $66^{\circ} 45' S.$ , and longitude  $174^{\circ} 16' E.$ ; after penetrating a few miles, he was enabled to make his way to the southward with comparative ease and safety; and on the morning of the 9th, after sailing more than 200 miles through the pack, he gained a perfectly clear sea, and bore away south-west towards the magnetic pole. On the morning of the 11th, land was discovered in the distance, which, as it was approached, rose in lofty mountain peaks of from 2,000 to 12,000 feet in height, completely covered with snow, with descending glaciers projecting many miles into the ocean, and presenting a perpendicular face of lofty cliffs. On the 12th, Captain Ross landed on a small island, and took possession of the country in the name of Queen Victoria, whose name he has bestowed upon it. The island is composed wholly of igneous rocks, and is situate in  $71^{\circ} 56' S.$  latitude, and  $171^{\circ} 7' E.$  longitude. Pursuing his course "along this magnificent land," on the 28th "a mountain, of 12,400 feet above the level of the sea, was seen emitting flame and smoke in splendid profusion. This magnificent volcano received the name of Mount Erebus, and is situated in  $77^{\circ} 32' S.$  latitude, and  $167^{\circ} 0' E.$  longitude; an extinct crater to the eastward, of somewhat less elevation, was called Mount Terror;" both after the ships which composed the expedition. The mainland preserved its southerly trending, and Captain Ross continued to follow it till his further progress in that direction was stopped by a lofty barrier of ice, extending E. S. E. Pursuing the examination of this barrier, he traced its continuity for 300 miles, and reached his highest latitude,  $78^{\circ} 4' S.$ ; but was prevented by the ice from reaching the magnetic pole, or finding shelter for his ships on any part of the coast, which he found at last to terminate abruptly in  $70^{\circ} 40' S.$  latitude, and  $165^{\circ} E.$  longitude.

The second year was spent in traversing the Antarctic Ocean, without making any remarkable discoveries.

In the third year, the expedition left the Falkland Islands, 17th December, 1842, and sailing to the south and west of Cape Horn, discovered land on the 28th. On the 31st they succeeded in reaching a volcanic island, situated in S. latitude  $64^{\circ} 12'$ , and W. longitude  $56^{\circ} 49'$ , in the bosom of a great gulf, about 40 miles wide, and about the same extent inland, bordered on its western side by snowy ranges, among which rises a magnificent table-topped mountain to the height of 7,000 feet. This gulf has been named the Gulf of Erebus and Terror. The island, though not more than two miles in diameter, projects a perfectly formed cone to the height of 3,500 feet above the level of the sea. The expedition subsequently ascertained the insularity of the land discovered by Brandfeldt in 1820, and named by D'Urville, in 1839, Louis Philippe's land; and returned to England in August, 1843.

Besides these new discoveries, there are within the limits of the Southern Ocean several islands, too far distant from any of the great continents to be

considered as belonging to them, and therefore not yet noticed in this work. In 1772, two French Captains discovered a group of high and barren islands to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, which, from them, have been named Marion and Crozet's Islands; the two most westerly were afterwards named by Cook, who passed between them in December, 1776, Prince Edward's Islands, in honor of the late Duke of Kent, father of her Majesty Queen Victoria. Farther east, between  $48^{\circ}$  and  $50^{\circ}$  S. latitude, and  $65^{\circ}$  and  $67^{\circ}$  E. longitude, is Kerguelen's Land, or the Island of Desolation, discovered by Captain Kerguelen in 1772. It is about 100 miles in length, and about 60 in breadth; but, owing to the coldness and moisture of the climate, it is almost totally destitute of vegetation. It is indeed represented as one of the bleakest and most desolate spots on the globe; but fossil wood and coal have been recently discovered in it by Captain Ross, in the course of his scientific expedition to the South Magnetic Pole. It seems to be chiefly composed of trap and other igneous and volcanic rocks, which rise into hills from 500 to 2,500 feet high. The coast is deeply indented with bays and inlets, and the whole surface is intersected by lakes and water-courses. North-east of Kerguelen's land are two small solitary islands, named St. Paul's and Amsterdam, which were discovered by the Dutch navigator Vlaming, in 1696. Vlaming, it appears, applied the name of Amsterdam to the northern island, and St. Paul's to the southern; but the islands have been confounded by English navigators, and the names transposed, so that the southern island is generally called Amsterdam, and the northern St. Paul's. But, be this as it may, the northern island is situated in  $37^{\circ} 52'$  S. latitude, and  $77^{\circ} 36'$  E. longitude, and has an elevation of 2,760 feet. It is twelve miles in circuit, and in fine weather may be seen from the anchorage of the southern island, a distance of 60 miles, on the same meridian. The latter, the original St. Paul's, is nine miles in length by five in breadth, of volcanic formation, without a tree or shrub, and destitute of vegetation, except coarse grass, and a kind of rushes or reeds. It abounds with hot springs, the water of which is wholesome, though somewhat offensive to the smell and taste. It contains a magnificent oval-shaped basin, large enough to contain the whole British navy, which is evidently the crater of an extinct volcano, with deep water, and an entrance 25 yards wide.—(*Journal R. Geog. Soc.* IX. 517. *Staunton's Account of Macartney's Embassy*, I. 256.

*Sandwich Land*, discovered by Cook in 1775, between  $57^{\circ}$  and  $61^{\circ}$  S. latitude, and  $27^{\circ}$  and  $30^{\circ}$  W. longitude, has since been found to consist of a number of islands, which are constantly covered with snow. The Isle of Georgia, between  $53^{\circ} 57'$  and  $54^{\circ} 57'$  S. latitude, and  $38^{\circ} 13'$  and  $35^{\circ} 34'$  W. longitude, about 31 leagues in length by 10 in breadth, is also a bleak and barren region, traversed by very lofty mountains, constantly covered with snow; the heat of summer being sufficient only to melt the snow on the low ground of the N. E. side.

# AGGREGATE STATISTICS OF THE WORLD.

FOUNDED ON DATA GIVEN IN THIS BOOK.

## 1.—EXTENT AND POPULATION.

DIVISIONS.	Extent in sq. miles.	Population.	Population to sq. mile.
North America, &c.....	8,300,000	43,000,000	5.18
West Indies.....	150,000	3,250,000	21.66
South America.....	6,500,000	14,950,000	2.30
Europe.....	3,683,000	254,800,000	68.78
Asia.....	17,500,000	665,650,000	38.00
Africa.....	11,870,000	68,000,000	5.72
Oceania.....	4,500,000	3,500,000	.78
Total.....	52,503,000	1,053,150,000	20.05

## 2.—RACES OF MANKIND.

DIVISIONS.	Caucasian.	Mongolian.	Malaysian.	Ethiopian.	American.
North America, &c.....	33,000,000	150,000	....	3,450,000	6,400,000
West Indies.....	750,000	....	....	2,497,000	3,000
South America.....	4,750,000	....	....	4,500,000	5,700,000
Europe.....	250,000,000	2,800,000	....	2,000,000	....
Asia.....	230,000,000	429,150,000	6,000,000	500,000	....
Africa.....	18,000,000	....	....	50,600,000	....
Oceania.....	100,000	....	2,700,000	700,000	....
Total.....	536,600,000	432,100,000	8,700,000	63,647,000	12,103,000

## 3.—RELIGIONS OF MANKIND.

RELIGIONS.	North America.	West Indies.	South America.	Europe.	Asia.	Africa.	Oceania.
Jews.....	60,000	2,000	17,000	2,600,000	800,000	200,000	....
CHRISTIANS. { Roman Catholics.....	16,000,000	2,400,000	12,600,000	125,050,000	100,000	4,000	10,000
{ Greek Church.....	....	....	....	60,000,000	5,000	1,000	....
{ Abyssinian Church.....	....	....	....	....	....	150,000	....
{ Protestants.....	25,800,000	848,000	333,000	56,090,000	50,000	30,000	10,000
{ Armenians.....	....	....	....	50,000	1,800,000	20,000	....
{ Nestorians.....	....	....	....	....	20,000	....	....
{ Other Christians.....	140,000	....	....	500,000	....	....	....
Mahomedans.....	....	....	....	10,000,000	155,825,000	12,500,000	....
Buddhists.....	....	....	....	....	260,000,000	....	....
Brahmins.....	....	....	....	....	100,000,000	....	....
Fetichists.....	1,000,000	....	2,000,000	600,000	50,000	55,095,000	3,480,000
Sect of Sinto.....	....	....	....	....	25,000,000	....	....
Sect of Tao-tse.....	....	....	....	....	60,000,000	....	....
Shamans.....	....	....	....	....	50,000,000	....	....
Sect of Confucius.....	....	....	....	....	7,000,000	....	....
Seiks, Parsees, &c.....	....	....	....	....	5,000,000	....	....
Total.....	43,000,000	3,250,000	14,950,000	254,800,000	665,650,000	68,000,000	3,500,000

## RECAPITULATION.

	Total.
Jews.....	3,679,000
CHRISTIANS.....	271,921,000
MAHOMEDANS.*.....	178,325,000
PAGANS.....	599,225,000

\* *Sunnite* Mahomedans, about 130,000,000; *Shiites*, 36,000,000; *Wahabees*, 7,000,000; and *Sofis*, 5,000,000, &c.



## A TABULAR VIEW OF PROTESTANT MISSIONS.\*

(From the Reports, chiefly, of the Missionary Institutions for the year 1847.)

SOCIETIES.	Missionaries.	Assistant Missionaries.	Native Missionaries.	Communi- cants.	Scholars.	WHERE ACTING
<b>INDIAN TRIBES.</b>						
American Board.....	24	14	8	644†	670†	Choctaws—Cherokees, &c.
“ Baptist.....	10	1	9	135†	†	Cherokees—Shawanees, &c.
“ Episcopal.....	1	..	..	..	..	Oneidas,
“ Methodist.....	20	..	..	770	..	Oregon—Oneidas, &c.
“ “ South.....	32	..	..	..	..	
“ Presbyterian.....	6	7	..	34†	228	Choctaws—Creeks, &c.
English Episcopal, Ch. Miss’y Soc....	4	4	4	530	594	Red River Settlement, Canada.
“ Wesleyan.....	4	1	..	204	91	Indians in British Territory.
United Brethren.†.....	4	..	..	107	..	Cherokees—Delawares.
	105	27	21	2424†	1583†	
<b>AFRICA.</b>						
American Board.....	9	..	7	..	205	Gaboon—Zulus.
“ Baptist.....	2	..	2	..	33†	Bassas.
“ Episcopal.....	2	2	..	49	150	Cape Palmas and vicinity
“ Methodist.....	16	22	..	879	†	American Colonies.
“ Presbyterian.....	3	1	..	†	36	Monrovia—The Kroos.
English Baptist.....	6	..	7	100	250	West Africa.
“ Episcopal, Ch. Miss’y Soc....	20	5	45	1894	6011	West and East Africa—Egypt.
“ Independent, Lond. Miss. Soc....	39	6	1†	2836†	2938†	South Africa—Mauritius.
“ Wesleyan.....	44	9	70	8531	11,474	West and South Africa.
Berlin Missionary Society.....	11	..	..	..	..	South Africa.
French Protestant.....	15	1	2	571	1113	South Africa.
German Mission.....	8	..	..	..	74	West Africa.
Norway Missionary Society.....	1	1	..	..	..	South Africa.
Rhenish “.....	24	..	3	..	..	South Africa.
Scotch, Free Church.....	7	1	6	..	..	South Africa.
“ Glasgow.....	2	1	5	..	..	South Africa.
“ United Secession.....	3	..	†	..	..	West Africa.
United Brethren.†.....	24	..	..	1547	..	South Africa.
	236	49	147†	16,407†	22,284†	
<b>WESTERN ASIA, &amp;c.</b>						
American Board.....	23	3	43	281	1124	Greece—Western Asia—Syria—
“ Baptist.....	2	..	..	..	70	
“ Episcopal.....	2	..	..	..	500	Constantinople—Greece
English Episcopal, Ch. Miss’y Soc....	2	2	12	24	461	Smyrna—Syria.
	29	5	55	305	2155	
<b>INDIA AND CEYLON.</b>						
American Board.....	35	6	103	609†	9408†	West and South India—Ceylon.
“ Baptist.....	2	3	..	..	860†	South India.
“ Baptist, Free Will.....	2	..	..	..	..	Orissa, North India
“ Lutheran.....	2	..	..	..	..	South India.
“ Presbyterian.....	25	..	11†	83	901	North India.
English Baptist.....	40	..	133	1842	4390	North India—Ceylon.
“ “ General.....	6	1	21	146†	141†	Orissa—North India.
“ Episcopal, Ch. Miss’y Soc....	68	9	748	4426	15,038	North, West and South India—
“ “ Gospel Prop. Soc....	39	1	58†	3584	6170†	North and South India—Ceylon.
“ Independent, Lond. Miss. Soc....	48	5	34†	917†	10,515†	North and South India.
“ Wesleyan.....	25	..	33	1718	7240	South India—Ceylon.
German, Basle Miss’y Society.....	21	..	11	†	1056†	South India.
“ Berlin “.....	3	..	..	..	..	North India.
“ Dresden “.....	2	..	..	..	..	South India.
“ Gossner’s “.....	10	..	..	..	..	North and South India.
“ Hamburg “.....	2	..	..	..	..	South India.
Irish Presbyterian.....	6	..	2	21	..	West India.
Scotch, Free Church.....	19	5	67	22†	3071†	North, West and South India.
“ Established Church.....	10	1	..	..	†	“ “ “
	365	31	1221†	13,368†	58,730†	
<b>BURMAH, SIAM, &amp;c.</b>						
American Board.....	6	..	1	3	18	Siam—Borneo.
“ Baptist.....	23	3	98	923†	1319†	Burmah—Siam—Assam—Arrakan.
“ Presbyterian.....	1	1	..	..	..	Siam.
English Baptist.....	2	..	..	..	..	Java—Samarang.
“ Independent, Lond. Miss. Soc....	1	..	..	..	..	Singapore.
	33	4	99	926†	1337†	

\* From the Foreign Missionary Chronicle, Jan., 1848.

† Returns imperfect. ‡ The Missionaries are called “Brethren”—a term which includes Laymen.

## A TABULAR VIEW OF PROTESTANT MISSIONS—CONTINUED.

SOCIETIES.	Missionaries.	Assistant Missionaries.	Native Missionaries.	Communi- cants.	Scholars.	WHERE ACTING.
<b>CHINA.</b>						
American Board.....	9	1	..	2	11	Canton—Amoy.
“ Baptist.....	4	1	..	..	..	Hong Kong—Ningpo.
“ “ South.....	5	..	5	..	..	Canton—Shanghai.
“ “ Seventh Day.....	2	..	..	..	..	Shanghai.
“ Episcopal.....	3	..	..	..	36	Shanghai.
“ Methodist.....	2	..	..	..	..	Fuh Chau.
“ Presbyterian.....	10	2	..	12†	61	Canton—Amoy—Ningpo.
English Baptist, General.....	2	..	..	..	..	Ningpo.
“ Episcopal, Ch. Miss. Society.....	1	..	..	..	..	Shanghai.
“ Independent, Lond. Miss. Soc.....	10	4	..	25†	35†	Hong Kong—Amoy—Shanghai.
“ Presbyterian.....	1	..	..	..	..	Hong Kong.
	54	8	5†	39†	143†	
<b>ISLANDS IN THE PACIFIC.</b>						
American Board.....	25	12	4	23,000	293†	Sandwich Islands.
Presbyterian, Nova Scotia Synod.....	1	1	..	..	..	New Caledonia.
English Episcopal, Ch. Miss. Soc.....	16	13	314	4454	2867†	New Zealand.
“ Independent, Lond. Miss. Soc.....	35	2	12†	1213†	7176†	Society—Harvey—Navigators, &c.
“ Wesleyan.....	33	4	26	1278	1873	Friendly—Feejee—New Zealand.
	110	32	356†	29,945†	11,509†	
<b>WEST INDIES, &amp;c.</b>						
American Associate Presbyterian.....	1	1	..	..	..	Trinidad.
“ Reformed “ Old Side.....	1	1	..	..	..	Hayti.
English Baptist.....	3	..	23	32,961	3996	Jamaica—Bahamas—Trinidad, &c.
“ Episcopal, Ch. Miss. Soc.....	38	..	2	642	722	Guiana—Jamaica.
“ Independent, Lond. Miss. Soc.....	26	..	21	2716†	1429	Demerara—Berbice—Jamaica.
“ Wesleyan.....	77	12	3	54,760	17,918	Jamaica, &c.
Scottish Missionary Society.....	7	..	10	1588†	736†	Jamaica.
United Brethren.†.....	171	..	..	17,211	..	Danish and British West Indies.
	324	14	59	109,878†	24,801†	
<b>GREENLAND AND LABRADOR.</b>						
United Brethren.†.....	30	..	..	113	..	
<b>THE JEWS.</b>						
American Board.....	1	..	..	..	..	Constantinople. [more.]
“ Jews' Society.....	3	..	..	..	..	New-York—Philadelphia—Balti-
“ Episcopal.....	1	..	..	..	..	New-York.
“ Presbyterian.....	1	..	..	..	..	New-York.
“ Associate Ref. Presbyterian.....	1	1	..	..	..	Holy Land. [Western Asia.]
English Episcopal, Lond. Jews' Soc.....	27	54	..	..	..	England—Continent of Europe—
“ Independent, Brit. Jews' Soc.....	7	..	..	..	..	England.
Irish Presbyterian.....	4	..	..	..	..	Damascus—Hamburg.
Scotch, Free Church.....	10	8	..	..	..	Constantinople—Pesth—Berlin—
“ Established Church.....	2	..	..	..	..	Tunis—England. [Jassy.]
	57	63	..	..	..	
<b>PAPAL EUROPE.</b>						
American Baptist.....	..	..	..	..	..	France and Germany.
Foreign Evangelical Society.....	..	..	..	..	..	France—Belgium, &c.
American Presbyterian.....	..	..	..	..	..	} By Contributions in aid of the French, Geneva, and other Evangelical Societies.
English Presbyterian.....	..	..	..	..	..	
Scotch, Free Church.....	..	..	..	..	..	
	57	63	..	..	..	
<b>Total—N. A. Indians.....</b>						
Africa.....	236	49	147†	16,407†	22,284†	
Western Asia, &c.....	29	5	55	305	2155	
India and Ceylon.....	365	31	1231†	13,368†	58,730†	
Burmah, Siam, &c.....	33	4	99	926†	1337†	
China.....	54	8	†	39†	143†	
South Sea Islands.....	110	32	356†	29,945†	11,509†	
West Indies, &c.....	324	14	59	109,878†	24,801†	
Greenland, &c.....	30	..	..	1134	..	
The Jews.....	57	63	..	..	..	
	1345	233	1958†	174,426†	122,542†	

† Returns imperfect. ‡ The Missionaries are called “Brethren”—a term which includes Laymen.

NOTE.—Ministers of the Gospel are classed as Missionaries; Physicians, Printers, and Teachers, as Assistant Missionaries. Females are not enumerated.

## PRINCIPAL MISSIONARY STATIONS.

ABEIH, . . . . .	Syria.	Bangalore, . . . . .	Hindustan.
Abenakis Indians, . . . . .	U. S.	Bankok, . . . . .	Siam.
Ada-Bazar, . . . . .	Asiatic Turkey.	Bankote, . . . . .	Hindustan.
Agra, . . . . .	Hindustan.	Baraka, . . . . .	Western Africa.
Ahmedabad, . . . . .	do.	Barbadoes, . . . . .	West Indies.
Ahmednuggur, . . . . .	do.	Barbuda, . . . . .	do.
Aitutaka, . . . . .	Hervey Islands.	Bareilli, . . . . .	Hindustan.
Ajmere, . . . . .	Hindustan.	Barripore, . . . . .	do.
Akyab, . . . . .	Further India.	Baroda, . . . . .	do.
Albany, . . . . .	Cape Colony.	Bassa, . . . . .	Liberia.
Albion Chapel, . . . . .	Berbice.	Bassa Cove, . . . . .	do.
Aleppo, . . . . .	Syria.	Baseterre, . . . . .	St. Kitt's, W. I.
Alexandria, . . . . .	Egypt.	Busuto Country, . . . . .	Africa.
Allahabad, . . . . .	Hindustan.	Bathurst, . . . . .	S. Africa.
Alleghany Indians, . . . . .	New-York.	Batticaloe, . . . . .	Ceylon.
Almorah, . . . . .	Hindustan.	Batticotta, . . . . .	do.
Amboyna, . . . . .	Malaysia.	Beatie's Prairie, . . . . .	Indian Territory.
Amlamgodde, . . . . .	Ceylon.	Beaufort, . . . . .	Jamaica, W. I.
Amoy, . . . . .	China.	Bechuanas, . . . . .	South Africa.
Anaa Island, . . . . .	Pacific.	Beirût, . . . . .	Syria.
Anguilla, . . . . .	West Indies.	Belgaum, . . . . .	Hindustan.
Anotta Bay, . . . . .	Jamaica, W. I.	Bellary, . . . . .	do.
Antigua, . . . . .	West Indies.	Bellevue, . . . . .	Otoe & Omaha Indians.
Apia, . . . . .	Upolu.	Benares, . . . . .	Hindustan.
Arorangi, . . . . .	Hervey Islands.	Berbice, . . . . .	Guayana.
Arracan, . . . . .	Further India.	Berlin, (Jews,) . . . . .	Prussia.
Assam, . . . . .	do.	Berhampore, . . . . .	Hindustan.
Astrakan, . . . . .	Russian Empire.	Bethabara, . . . . .	Jamaica, W. I.
Atchoovaly, . . . . .	Ceylon.	Bethel, . . . . .	St. Kitts, W. I.
Athens, . . . . .	Greece.	Bethelsdorp, . . . . .	South Africa.
Atui, . . . . .	Hervey Islands.	Bethany, . . . . .	St. John's, W. I.
Austral Islands, . . . . .	Pacific.	Bethany, . . . . .	Jamaica, W. I.
Ava, . . . . .	Birmah.	Bethesda, . . . . .	St. Kitts, W. I.
Avarua, . . . . .	Hervey Islands.	Beulah, . . . . .	Borabora.
BABEK, . . . . .	Asiatic Turkey.	Bexley, . . . . .	Liberia.
Bad River, . . . . .	Ojibwa Indians, U. S.	Bhamdun, . . . . .	Syria.
Baddagame, . . . . .	Ceylon.	Bhingar, . . . . .	Hindustan.
Bagdad, . . . . .	Asiatic Turkey.	Bhowanipore, . . . . .	Calcutta.
Bahama Islands, . . . . .	West Indies.	Black town, . . . . .	do.
Baharutze, . . . . .	South Africa.	Blest Town, . . . . .	Eimeo.
Balasore, . . . . .	Hindustan.	Blue Barre, . . . . .	Liberia.
Balfour, . . . . .	Caffreland.	Bogue Town, . . . . .	Tahiti.
Ballia Hati, . . . . .	Calcutta.	Bombay, . . . . .	Hindustan.
Balize, . . . . .	Honduras.	Bootchnaap, . . . . .	Bechuanas, S. A.
Baltimore, (Jews,) . . . . .	Maryland.	Borabora, . . . . .	Society Islands.
Bamley, . . . . .	Surinam.	Bosjesmans, . . . . .	South Africa.
Bancorah, . . . . .	Hindustan.	Bosjeveldt, . . . . .	do.
Banda, . . . . .	Moluçca Islands.	Boujah, . . . . .	Asiatic Turkey.

Bouro, . . . . .	Malaysia.	Corfu, . . . . .	Ionian Islands.
Bridgetown, . . . . .	Barbadoes.	Coromandel Coast, . . . . .	Hindustan.
Brousa, . . . . .	Asiatic Turkey.	Cotta, . . . . .	Ceylon.
Brunswick, . . . . .	Berbice.	Craddock, . . . . .	South Africa.
Buffalo River, . . . . .	South Africa.	Creek Indians, . . . . .	United States.
Buenos Ayres, . . . . .	South America.	Crooked Spring, . . . . .	Jamaica.
Buntingville, . . . . .	Caffreland.	Cuddalore, . . . . .	Hindustan.
Burdwan, . . . . .	Hindoostan.	Cuddapah, . . . . .	do.
Burhampur, . . . . .	do.	Culmah, . . . . .	do.
Burhishol, . . . . .	do.	Cuttack, . . . . .	do.
CAFFRELAND, . . . . .	South Africa.	Cutwah, . . . . .	Hindustan.
Cairo, . . . . .	Egypt.	Dacca, . . . . .	do.
Caiteo, . . . . .	Ceylon.	Dalles, . . . . .	Oregon.
Calcutta, . . . . .	Hindustan.	Damascus, . . . . .	Syria.
Caldwell, . . . . .	Liberia.	Darwar, . . . . .	Hindustan.
Caledon Institution, . . . . .	South Africa.	Davy Town, . . . . .	Jamaica, W. I.
Caltura, . . . . .	Ceylon.	Delaware Indians, . . . . .	United States.
Calvados, . . . . .	France.	Demerara, . . . . .	South America.
Cambridge, . . . . .	Jamaica.	Dena, . . . . .	Liberia.
Canal, No. 1, . . . . .	Demerara.	Digah, . . . . .	Hindustan.
Canton, . . . . .	China.	Dinagapore, . . . . .	do.
Cape Mount, . . . . .	Liberia.	Dindigul, . . . . .	do.
Cape Palmas, . . . . .	do.	Dominica, . . . . .	West Indies.
Cape Town, . . . . .	South Africa.	Dom-Dom, . . . . .	Hindustan.
Caradive, . . . . .	Ceylon.	Dry Harbor, . . . . .	Jamaica.
Cattaraugus (Upper,) . . . . .	N. Y. Indians.	Dwight, . . . . .	Cherokee Indians.
Cattaraugus (Lower,) . . . . .	do.	Dysalsdorp, . . . . .	South Africa.
Cawnpoor, . . . . .	Hindustan.	EBENEZER CHAPEL, . . . . .	Demerara.
Cedar Hill, . . . . .	Antigua, W. I.	Ebony, . . . . .	Jamaica, W. I.
Celebes, . . . . .	Malaysia.	Edina, . . . . .	Liberia.
Ceram, . . . . .	Moluccas.	Eimeo, . . . . .	Georgia Islands.
Chapelton, . . . . .	Jamaica, W. I.	Elin, . . . . .	South Africa.
Charleston, . . . . .	do.	Emmaus, . . . . .	St. Johns, W. I.
Charlottenburg, . . . . .	Surinam.	Enon, . . . . .	South Africa.
Chavagcherry, . . . . .	Ceylon.	Erzerroom, . . . . .	Asiatic Turkey.
Chicacole, . . . . .	Hindustan.	Ewa, . . . . .	Oahu.
Chinsurah, . . . . .	Hindustan.	FAIRFIELD, . . . . .	Cherokee Indians.
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Choctaw Indians, . . . . .	do.	Faré Harbor, . . . . .	Huahine.
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